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The Teaching of Homemaking

HATCHER-ANDREWS

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RIVERSIDE HOME ECONOMICS SERIES

Edited by Alice F. Blood, Ph.D., *Formerly Director of the School of Home Economics, Simmons College, Boston, Massachusetts.*

The Teaching of HOMEMAKING

With emphasis on Teacher-Pupil-Parent Planning

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DEDICATED TO

THE HOMEMAKING TEACHERS IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF SAINT PAUL AND MINNEAPOLIS AND IN VARIOUS TOWNS AND CITIES THROUGHOUT MICHIGAN, WHOSE CO-OPERATION MADE POSSIBLE THE RESEARCH ON WHICH MUCH OF THIS BOOK IS BASED.

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Editor's Introduction

EVERY SUBJECT IN the school curriculum has, in recent years, been examined critically for its content, its method, and its effect. Surely English must be taught but do children write good letters when occasions arise? Arithmetic is fundamental but do sales girls make out their slips accurately?

Homemaking, as a school subject, has been especially called upon to examine its methods and justify its claims to social value. Can the student prepare a whole meal quickly and efficiently at home? Does she give a good accounting of her allowance? Is she tolerant and helpful with the younger members of the family? Does she see the possibility of making a party jacket from her mother's old evening cape?

The authors of this book are concerned with classroom procedures which they believe most likely to have these outcomes at home — namely, student and parent participation in setting up goals, choosing experiences, and evaluating progress. They deal fully with techniques for minimizing the difficulties associated with room arrangements, limited appropriations, and short time allowances. They have been especially helpful to the young teacher in choosing the numerous examples of procedure from widely different divisions of the homemaking subject matter, and treating explicitly such topics as teaching aids, teacher growth and teacher obligations to the community.

The book is intended for students in teacher training and for young teachers and their supervisors but it has much to offer to any teacher of homemaking who watches her own methods with a critical eye.

ALICE F. BLOOD

Foreword

FOR SEVERAL YEARS one of the chief aims of education has been to determine the method of teaching best suited to produce the maximum development of all pupils. Changing social and economic conditions have recently forced us to see that in many instances the results of our present teaching methods are inadequate. Too many students are unable to plan and serve a meal at a given time even though they know how to prepare specific items for it. Too many are unable to get the best value when shopping even though they are aware of some of the misleading aspects of advertising. Too many fail to make a good appearance even though they can make a dress successfully.

In this book, therefore, we have attempted to re-examine the techniques of teaching in the light of modern research both in general and homemaking education and to develop a method which will lead the teacher to understand better the nature of the learning process.

The newer method of teaching tends to change the position of the teacher from one who wholly directs class procedure to one who shares with her pupils and their parents the responsibility of setting up definite goals; choosing experiences which are based on the pupils' needs, interests, and abilities; and evaluating progress. We do not mean to imply that the method we have advocated can be used as a rule-of-thumb. Neither is it to be considered a teaching-made-easy device. What we have tried to do is to offer suggestions for co-operative planning in homemaking education which, if adapted to meet the individual needs of each classroom, will tend to produce higher achievement and a better understanding of fundamental educative principles than would otherwise be possible.

We desire to express appreciation:

To Clara M. Brown and Florence L. Goodenough, of the University of Minnesota, each an outstanding educator in her own field, whose stimulating teaching and high ideals of scholarship inspired the writing of this book;

To the American Home Economics Association for the Ellen H. Richard's Fellowship in 1939–1940 which made possible the origi-

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Hazel M. Hatcher
Mildred E. Andrews

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1

Three Classes

No undertaking can be carried on successfully without method.
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

EDUCATORS at the present time agree fairly well on the subjects which should be taught in our schools. The method of teaching these subjects, however, is still a controversial issue and varies from formality in classroom procedure to unrestrained freedom of action.

Picture yourself in a modern public school where there are several ninth-grade homemaking classes. In Section 1 the teacher is conducting a lesson in meal preparation based on a previous assignment to list at least ten rules in menu planning. Listen to part of the class discussion:

TEACHER: You have previously learned what foods should be included in the day's meals. Before you go ahead and plan your meals, you still need to know some special rules for menu planning. For part of your assignment, you were going to try to find at least ten rules. Who can suggest one rule?

MARJORIE: Well, you could first find out the cost of the menu.

TEACHER: You mean to find out how much money you can afford to spend on the meal?

MARJORIE: Yes.

[*Teacher writes on board: 1. Find out how much money you can spend on the meal and plan accordingly.*]

TEACHER: Jean, what can you suggest?

JEAN: Plan meals which can be prepared in the time you have to spend.

[*Teacher writes on board: 2. Plan meals which can be prepared in the time you have to spend.*]

TEACHER: Yes, who has another suggestion?

[*No response.*]

TEACHER: Alice, can you give a rule?

ALICE: No, I haven't any.

TEACHER: Is there anyone who can suggest another rule?

[*No response.*]

It might be well for you to jot down these additional rules that most of you were unable to find. You will need them later in planning your meals.

[*Teacher writes on board as follows:*

3. Include some foods in your meals that do not require a last-minute preparation.

4. Serve the same food only once in the same meal.

5. Check on food values in order to avoid all one kind of foodstuff.

6. Do not introduce more than one new food in the same meal.

7. Plan baked foods that require the same oven temperature if these must be prepared at the same time.

8. Plan for a contrast in texture, such as crisp and soft foods.

9. Plan a pleasing combination of acid, bland, and sweet foods.

10. Serve no more than one strong-flavored or highly-seasoned food at a meal.]

[*Time for copying.*]

TEACHER: The assignment for tomorrow will be based on these ten rules. Plan a day's meals for a family of five including father, mother, daughter aged sixteen, daughter aged fourteen, and son aged seven. The rest of the period will be spent reading Chapter 5 in the textbook.

In Section 2, a group of students in meal preparation are attempting to decide what they want to do for the next lesson. A part of the class discussion follows:

TEACHER: What about tomorrow, girls?

ETHEL: I think we should know what to do with leftovers.

CHORUS: Nooooooo!

VIRGINIA: We haven't made any brownies for a long time.

TEACHER: We did make them once, girls, but would you like to do it again?

[*About half the class raise their hands.*]

PEGGY: Since we all don't want to make brownies, how about making a dessert we would all like?

JOAN: What kind of a dessert could we make?

TEACHER: There are many kinds of desserts, but some of them are quite expensive.

PEGGY: Well, let's just make one serving. That wouldn't cost much.

TEACHER: All right. Would you like to make caramel pudding with nuts?

[*Nods of approval.*]

In Section 3, the second lesson in a course in foods is under way. Previous to the discussion to be presented, the teacher had set up tentative pupil objectives based on her knowledge of pupil needs. To make the pupils aware of these needs, the teacher had allowed the class, who thought they already knew how to cook, to prepare meals in groups in the first lesson in order to test their ability in meal preparation and serving. The teacher is now directing the lesson in such a way as to enable pupils to state their newly discovered needs in the form of objectives.[1]

TEACHER: Florene has raised another question. How many had to hurry much faster at the end of the period than at the beginning?

[*Hands were unanimously raised.*]

FLORENE: I don't think we could have hurried the apple baking any. The foods didn't get done when we thought they would, and then, when they did, we had to hurry up and get them served so we could wash the dishes.

TEACHER: Maybe the difficulty goes back to your menu planning. Do you think that might be true?

FLORENE: Yes, it could be.

[*Hands waving.*]

TEACHER: Now, do you want to add anything else to what Florene said a moment ago about planning time? Yes, Bette?

BETTE: When we plan the menu, we should plan our time too.

TEACHER: Yes, most of you forgot about the time element and thought an hour was plenty of time to prepare and serve a meal, didn't you?

FRANCES: I didn't.

1 Adapted from a stenotype record of a lesson taught at the Murray High School, St. Paul, Minnesota, in 1939. The entire lesson is given in the Appendix beginning on page 429. It is an illustration of how the teacher can secure the pupils' co-operation in planning.

Teacher: Yet your group was the group that had pie. Did this group plan their time wisely?

Frances: We had never baked a pie before and didn't know how long it took.

Teacher: What if you had had a guest yesterday, girls, and you were planning to serve apple pie? Peggy, you were in that group, weren't you? Could you have served your apple pie for lunch?

Peggy: No, it wasn't quite done.

Teacher: Where was the apple pie when you were at the table ready for your dessert?

Emily: In the oven.

Teacher: Yes, in the oven. [*Laughter.*] Bette was right, then. You do have to plan your menu so as to be able to use time to the best advantage. I believe there were four groups who used ovens. How many of you planned ahead so that the ovens were at the right temperature when you were ready to put your food in? Was yours, Frances?

Frances: Ours was.

Teacher: Then Frances' group was the prize group. What did the rest of you observe about the use of time in the kitchen? Were all the groups through at the end of the hour?

Audrey: No, all the groups weren't through then, and the next class who used this room had to put away some of our dishes because we were already late for the next period.

Teacher: What if you had come into the kitchen and found dishes to put away before you had begun your meal yesterday? Could you have gotten through as well as you did? Don't you think you should always put away the dishes?

[*Class assents.*]

Teacher: Does this give you an idea for an objective? You remember it was Florene's suggestion originally.

Gertrude: We should plan our work so as to be able to use our time better.

[*Dorothy writes on board: Plan our work so as to be able to use our time better.*]

These three illustrations are typical of the ways in which students are being taught. One hears much about methods, but what does the word mean? Method in teaching implies an orderly process of using material to produce desired development of the pupil. Few

would deny that this development should include the expansion of a pupil's interests and abilities, a knowledge of how to control them, and guidance in using them to the best advantage to meet life experiences. With this definition in mind, we may analyze the three classrooms.

In Section 1, the class procedure was more or less formal, with the teacher dominating the situation. There was little or no discussion and very little response from the students. If one had followed through the entire unit, he would have seen that the class was directed wholly by the teacher, who planned the objectives and activities and evaluated achievement.

There are still a few educators who believe that this is the most desirable way to insure learning on the part of the pupils. With this method, the teacher dictates what is to be done; she decides what the pupils need and how they shall be taught. The pupils merely listen, observe, and then repeat what they have heard or read. The emphasis is on the students' assimilating a given amount of subject matter. Fixed programs of activity, arranged in advance by the teacher, are believed to encourage unity and stability and to bring about more concrete results than would be possible if the pupils themselves were allowed to have a share in planning the classroom work.

Similarly, if one had followed Section 2 over a period of time, he would have noticed that all formality between teacher and pupils was put aside and that great freedom of expression prevailed. The importance of the teacher was minimized. It was apparent that the pupils were planning their own activities from day to day and were basing their suggestions on ideas that appealed to them at first thought.

There are many educators who advocate this method, since they believe that pupils should be allowed full responsibility in determining what they are to study. They do not believe in holding pupils to a mastery of tasks which are uninteresting and from which their attention may wander if external pressure is not applied. Pupil interest then becomes a paramount issue because these educators feel that the best results are obtained by permitting the pupils to engage in activities in which they have the greatest interest. Forc-

ing attention by sheer will power is considered detrimental to the physical and mental welfare of the pupils. Compelling them to do anything other than what they want to do is also thought to be too much of a mental strain, one which should be avoided until the student becomes an adult. In general this method pivots around the idea that given freedom of expression, which in itself is a natural right in a democracy, students will be able to create their own destinies to the satisfaction of all concerned.

In Section 3, one sees a classroom in which there is both teacher and pupil participation. If one had followed this class throughout the semester, he would have seen extensive co-operation between the teacher and pupils: a sharing of responsibility in planning objectives, directing experiences, and evaluating progress.

The advocates of this method believe that this procedure is a desirable compromise between the two extremes: undue formality in classroom techniques based wholly on teacher direction and disregard for individual interests; and unlimited freedom of action directed and controlled to a large extent by the pupils themselves and subject to their whims. In the third method, the aim is to relate interest and effort in such a way that activities in the classroom correlate with the interests of everyday life. The object of learning is considered to be, not the mere acquisition of facts, but the ability to respond to a total situation. Students are trained to assume responsibilities by being given a share in setting up the objectives for the course and by learning to evaluate their progress toward the achievement of these goals. Activities based on the pupils' needs, interests, and abilities serve to create experiences which prepare students to cope with and adjust to the complex society of today.

These three types of classroom procedure offer a brief picture of teaching methods used in American schools today. There is the conservative element who resist change. Then there is the more radical element who introduce whole series of changes in classroom procedure basing them on the assumption that conventional education is not meeting the needs of today. Then there are those who feel that some modification in teaching is necessary and that recommendations for changes based on sound psychological and educational research should not be ignored. Many of these edu-

cators believe that a combination of what is best in the conventional and in the more radical methods might do as a compromise between the two extremes until the relative values of each have withstood the test of the democratic society which they wish to serve.

This middle course of action, known as the goal-seeking method, is believed by many educators to hold considerable promise as an answer to the problem of classroom guidance. The term "goal-seeking procedure," of course, is not new. Practically all modern books on education employ the word "goals" or "objectives" extensively. The goals may be called "educational goals" or "the developmental goals of a child" or "goals arising from work and play" or "pupil goals, which are changing in nature." In fact, the learning process itself is often defined in terms of the attainment of certain goals. It may be well, therefore, to review at this point certain aspects of goal-seeking procedure.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

The following examples illustrate three ways of teaching. On the basis of your reading of Chapter 1, identify each method.

1. A group of girls are interested in learning certain short cuts in planning and making garments. They talk to dressmakers and their mothers and read fashion magazines and clothing construction books to discover as many of these time-and-labor-saving methods as possible. They then find out what garments are most needed at home that can be used as mediums for realizing this purpose. One girl makes two everyday dresses for her mother; another, school suits for a small nephew; a third, sleeping garments for various members of the family.
2. As soon as a clothing class of twenty-five girls had assembled and the attendance had been taken, each girl went to her locker for her sewing materials and then started to sew. Some of the girls worked at their desks while others used the machines. The teacher went silently from one girl to the other giving suggestions as needed. She had examined the work of seven girls when the warning bell sounded for the end of the period. The class quickly put away their work and passed out of the room.
3. The products of girls in Miss Jones' classes were excellent. The class

always appeared to be running smoothly because Miss Jones was farsighted in giving detailed and specific directions for every activity.

4. As soon as the class in child care had arranged a play space for pre-school children, they wished to commence their play school, but the teacher asked their plans to care for the children. The class decided they must work out two schedules. The children's schedule included a rest period, story-telling, toilet time, mid-afternoon lunch, play indoors and out, and even short field trips. The schedule for the girls was planned so that each girl had five different experiences with the children in the ten days that the play school was in session.
5. The teacher was having a laboratory lesson in which she wanted the girls to learn how to make good muffins. She wrote the recipe upon the blackboard, explained it, and saw that the directions were understood. Then the class made muffins, working in small groups.
6. The class in related art in a consolidated high school decided that they would like to go to a city about eighteen miles away to purchase Christmas gifts. They thought that it would be a novel experience.
7. A teacher in applied art wished her class to gain some ability in flower arrangement. To help them attain the goal, she assembled some of her own vases, which had been carefully chosen, and spent some time in demonstrating flower arrangement.

2

Fundamental Aspects of Goal-Seeking Procedure

> *However slow the progress of mankind may be or however imperceptible the gain in a single generation, the advancement is evident in the long run.*
>
> LOCKE

At the present time our educational system is passing through a period of marked change. Consequently there are bound to be differences of opinion in regard to classroom procedure, and they should be accepted as a challenge to work toward a better understanding of the principles involved. One of the chief considerations is the matter of determining the method of teaching best suited to produce the maximum development of all pupils for intelligent participation in society. Most educators will agree that there is no perfect method of teaching. Also, the intelligence and personality of the teacher play an important part in determining her effectiveness in the classroom. But when imagination, enthusiasm, and ability are combined with training in the knowledge and use of sound classroom techniques, then teaching becomes a form of educational guidance by which pupils attain not only knowledge and skills but wholesome personality development as well.

Teaching Methods and Society

The content and goals of education have varied from time to time, but they have always been closely identified with the type of

society in which they function. As civilization has progressed, every change has been reflected in the classroom. In the eighties, when homemaking became a permanent part of many a school curriculum, American life was more rural and more simple in its demands than at the present time. Fewer books in home economics were available, a fact which justified to some extent the conventional method of teaching based on memorization and imitation. In many cases homemaking teachers taught other subjects also and thus carried over into the field of homemaking the mechanical patterns of teaching used in those courses.

With the influx of modern inventions, however, American life gradually became more and more urban. Many of the inventions, of course, affected the home, causing drastic changes in family life. The processes of baking, canning, laundering, sewing, and others have been transferred in many instances from the home to commercial concerns. The vastly increased production of mechanical products manufactured for the home, such as telephones, electric and gas stoves, stokers, dishwashers, toasters, coffee makers, waffle irons, and vacuum cleaners, added to the comforts of living but changed the nature of household labor. The automobile, the radio, and the movies affected both rural and urban life, minimizing the importance of distance and greatly increasing personal freedom. New discoveries in the fields of medicine and science revolutionized health habits and increased the life span, and sociological and psychological research gave society, as a whole, a new understanding of human relationships.

However, even though mechanical inventions have greatly decreased physical labor in the home, the actual work of homemaking has not been reduced; it has merely changed in character. For example, instead of baking, modern homemakers purchase many of their products ready-prepared, but may spend the time which was once used for baking in the study and preparation of meals which are adequately nutritious. Meals, especially breakfasts, are served at several different hours to meet the needs of individual members of the family. Food is also prepared in various ways and taken from the home to picnics in the yard or to other attractive places. Modern parents put in more time raising their children than previous

generations did. The play movement with its stress on hobbies, the increased interest in psychology, and the advantages of medical services have caused parents to assume new attitudes toward their children and have produced widespread changes in personal relationships; yet at the same time they impose new demands upon the homemaker which continue to make the business of homemaking a full-time job.

While the pattern of family living was being greatly modified, current changes in school programs have also been taking place. Schools began to realize that educational goals must be reorganized from time to time to meet existing conditions. Compulsory attendance laws, which began to be generally enforced throughout the country at the early part of the twentieth century, created larger homemaking classes in high schools, thus presenting a vital challenge to teachers to reorganize the school program so that it would meet the needs of a more varied group. Although the distribution of labor within the home has always given children, especially adolescents, a share in performing many of the household tasks, the influx of mechanical inventions made it essential that young people be given scientific training at school so that they and their families might benefit by modern conveniences. Furthermore, the increased buying power of many families paralleled by an increase of advertising material necessitated a working knowledge of how to plan and buy wisely. It was believed that this information could best be given through classroom experience. Also the growing recognition that family relationships can be improved by teaching pupils the generally accepted principles of human conduct has resulted in the setting up of courses of study which will offer valuable experiences to pupils in meeting actual life situations. Last, but not least, the expanding vocational interests of youth and the preparation for afterschool employment have long been receiving sympathetic consideration from homemaking departments.

These material considerations, coupled with a more comprehensive understanding of junior- and senior-high-school students, caused teachers to become aware that young people of the teen-age do not always benefit by conventional methods of teaching. The acceleration in physical, intellectual, emotional, and social growth

and the broadening of adolescent interests call for a stimulating program filled with an endless variety of interesting and personal experiences which will stir the imagination and afford opportunities for mental exercise. As a rule, young children do not question monotonous procedures such as drill, nor do they rebel against cut-and-dried assignments prescribed by the teacher. But adolescents, who are making an effort to achieve independence of thought and action, resent having adults do all the planning for them. Many educators agree, therefore, that learning will progress much more efficiently when young people are given a share not only in planning the school program but in evaluating achievement as well. Since adolescents are primarily interested in themselves and the personal problems which confront them as they attempt to make an adequate social adjustment, high-school programs need to be based on the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils themselves. This calls for a flexibility of procedure which is not possible in most conventional methods. Teachers have, therefore, been encouraged to get away from too much standardized procedure, but the difficulty has been in knowing just what course to pursue.

The transition from the use of conventional methods to more modern techniques has been necessarily slow. It takes time to get new methods into working order, and many of the new ideas have failed to produce results simply because as yet they have not been thoroughly understood. Successful teachers, however, must sense and anticipate the changes which are taking place in society and adapt both the method and the content of education to these changes.

Goal-Seeking Procedure in History

The idea of recognizing individual differences and making allowances for individual expression — which is a counterpart of the goal-seeking method — is not new, but originated as far back as 450 B.C. when Protagoras said, "Man is the measure of all things." The philosophy of that era stressed individual success or gain as the paramount goal, but it was too narrow to survive since even then it was recognized that individual interests cannot exist apart from

group interests. It was not until the rise of Greek civilization that individuals, while fitting themselves for citizenship, were encouraged to attain personality growth through mental stimulation. Socrates opposed individualism by itself, but tried to formulate the idea of a social group in which individual expression was possible. He believed in a universal trait common to all. This common possession was knowledge which could be developed by setting up principles upon which all could agree. Socrates also believed that knowledge was the first qualification of any teacher, but he also considered that the duty of the teacher was to show pupils how to develop knowledge. Socrates not only told his teachers what to do but how to do it as well. He developed the conversational method of teaching, encouraging pupils to discuss individual issues which might lead to universal truths. At the same time he believed that subject matter could be best assimilated when taught so that it grew out of the actual experiences of individuals themselves, but that it could never be assimilated when forced upon them. This idea was based on the assumption that the pleasure derived from any form of activity tended to increase that activity. There is no knowing what might have happened to education had Socrates been allowed to continue his teachings unmolested; but he stood at the peak of Greek civilization and in reality his educational program required more intelligence than the Greeks or anyone since then could bring to bear upon it.

Plato and Aristotle have also been regarded as worthy contributors to much of our present-day philosophy of education; but after the death of Socrates there was a gradual decline of flexibility in educational thought and procedure followed by stress on intellectualism. Although Plato originated the concept of individual differences largely determined by heredity and related to economic status, both he and Aristotle tended to suppress individual interests, saying that the state was prior to the individual. Some of Aristotle's ideas, however, have a familiar ring in our present-day theories of education:

> All intelligent action is action for the sake of an end.
>
> In practical matters the end is not mere speculative knowledge of what is to be done, but rather the doing of it.

We exist by what we do . . . for the work produced displays concretely, what existed before potentially.

A good teacher learns as much from his pupils as they do from him.

Throughout the centuries which followed Greek civilization, there was a constant struggle to stress individual development by increasing freedom of judgment, independence of thinking, and individual responsibility on the part of young people. In the sixteenth century, educators recommended that teaching deal with realities, and that copies, models, and pictures supplement books. This was followed by suggestions that the desire for learning be stimulated in every possible way — by parents, by teachers, by suitable school buildings and equipment, by the pupils themselves, and by a natural and comprehensive method of teaching. In the nineteenth century it was believed that the teacher controlled to a large extent the mind of the pupil and that in order to make learning effective, the teacher should present subject matter in such a way that pupils would acquire new ideas based on related experiences of the past in the light of present interpretation. Gradually such phrases as pupil aims, teacher aims, formal steps, correlation, and many other familiar terms crept into educational literature.

With the advent of the twentieth century, many of the previous theories of individualism began to take a more definite form and to be defined in terms of objective criteria. Less emphasis was placed upon subject matter taught for its own sake; more stress was put upon programs which involved goal-seeking behavior relating to the experiences of the pupils themselves. The value of conventional methods of teaching began to be seriously questioned on the grounds that they did not adequately allow for the recognition and expansion of individual interests, needs, and abilities — factors considered very important in producing efficient learning.

This was true in other countries as well as America. Educators in England were saying that no child was being educated who was not being taught to set up for himself, and to apply, his own standards. It was believed that pupils not only were capable of choosing and choosing wisely in co-operation with the teacher the best methods of learning, but were able to formulate thoughts and

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opinions about the things they were learning. Furthermore, it was felt that any alternative as to the handling of the work which might occur to the teacher should be referred to the class and suggestions should be invited. About the same time movements in German education emphasized the principle that pupils should not only define objectives and arrange procedures, but that they should test and correct their own methods. This did not mean that pupils should be placed on their own responsibility but that, under the guidance of the teacher, the pupils should be given a wide range of latitude. Thus in Europe as well as in America one of the first steps toward a change in educational procedure was based on the idea that the pupil should be a partner in the learning process. Instead of dominating the classroom, the teacher was encouraged to become one of the class group engaged in discussing and planning what should be done. Pupils were urged not only to help define objectives, to help arrange procedures, but also to assist in evaluating their own achievement as well. Gradually in the field of home-making even the parents and the community in co-operation with the teacher and pupils participated in planning and carrying out worth-while goals and experiences.

Goal-Seeking and Educational Psychology

The history of educational psychology, which concerns itself primarily with teaching and learning situations as they occur in or are related to the life of the school, indicates that goal-seeking phenomena have now become identified with classroom techniques. At the present time educational psychologists tend to believe that goals and purposes appear to be effective in determining action and thus promote and lead to learning. Learning situations are thought of in terms of purposive behavior in which pupils have goals within their possibilities; motivation directed toward these goals; and adequate understanding of the relationship between the efforts made and the degree of success or failure toward the attainment of these goals.[1] (See Chapter 7, "Efficiency in Learning.")

[1] R. W. Frederick, C. E. Ragsdale, R. Salisbury, *Directing Learning* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938), pp. 46–60.

Since learning is considered a modification of behavior through experience, what pupils learn is largely determined by hereditary factors, on the one hand, and environmental conditions on the other. This simply means that physical and intellectual abilities are largely determined by endowment, but the extent to which they are realized depends upon the environment and training to which they are subjected. (See Chapter 6, "Growth Records.") There is a definite movement among educational psychologists to set up an optimum environment and to guide the learning process by motivating activity toward goals directly related to the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils themselves, and by making it possible for each pupil to attain a measure of success in the achievement of these goals.[2]

It is also believed that learning can be increased in effectiveness in direct proportion as the pupil takes an active part in the learning process.[3] Working together, the teacher and the pupils can formulate worth-while goals which will offer a diversity of constructive experiences in and out of the classroom. (See Chapter 3, "Setting up Goals.")

The general principle of teacher-pupil co-operation embodies the idea of giving the pupils a share in the estimation of their own progress toward the goals to be achieved. This knowledge not only motivates further endeavor but keeps learning techniques flexible, since pupils tend to discard one procedure and try another, if sufficient progress is not being made.[4] Still other psychologists recommend introducing devices which will enable pupils to see when learning is progressing satisfactorily and when it is going astray.[5] Self-evaluation devices, which enable pupils to check their own progress at intervals and to compare their ratings with those of the

[2] A. I. Gates, A. T. Jersild, T. R. McConnell, R. C. Challman, *Educational Psychology* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942), pp. 295–320.
G. W. Hartman, *Educational Psychology* (New York: American Book Company, 1941), pp. 131–132.

[3] C. R. Griffith, *An Introduction to Educational Psychology* (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1935), p. 49.

[4] W. F. Book, *Economy and Techniques of Learning* (New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1932), p. 323.

[5] A. I. Gates, *Psychology for Students of Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931), p. 347.
R. W. Frederick, C. E. Ragsdale, R. Salisbury, *op. cit.*, p. 73.

teacher, have been used with considerable success and are believed to be an effective means of promoting efficient learning. (See Chapter 5, "Evaluating Achievement.")

These educational concepts explain briefly the basic principles on which this book is based. Further information will indicate how scientific research, also, has helped to shape the general pattern of the goal-seeking method.

Goal-Seeking Techniques and Research

A number of studies in various fields have been carried out to determine which of two methods produces the more satisfactory results. The typical procedure is to group pupils in two sections — an experimental group and a control group. Groups are carefully measured and equated with respect to mental ability, previous training, knowledge of subject before the experiment begins, and other factors that might influence the results. In so far as possible, all factors except the one in which the investigation is being made are held constant. The control group is then taught by the traditional or conventional method and the experimental group by the method being tried out. In order to determine whether the experimental method is better or less successful than the control method, the teacher must know how much improvement is normally made in the length of time covered by the experiment. This is generally measured by giving a standard test with established norms at the beginning and end of the experiment and by then comparing the progress of the two groups with the norms.[6] The improvement shown by the experimental group must be considerably better than that shown either by the norms or by the control group, or the method is not regarded as superior to those commonly in use.

One of the most significant studies made in the field of educational methods is known as the "Eight-Year Study."[7] It was conducted over an eight-year period with 30 schools (approximately 1500 pairs of students) co-operating with over 300 American colleges to

[6] Norms for standard tests are based on the work of large and unselected groups of pupils and represent the average progress made under ordinary teaching methods.

[7] Wilford M. Aiken, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942).

determine the effect upon college success of radically different types of secondary-school programs. Some of the important findings indicate that:

1. Educational goals should be based on the needs of youth.
2. There should be increased pupil-teacher planning in setting up objectives, in determining ways and means for achieving these objectives, and in evaluating progress.
3. Procedures of evaluation should be developed which indicate progress in terms of the objectives set up.
4. In the learning process, emphasis should be placed on meaningful experiences and types of motivation which lead toward achievement of the objectives.
5. More attention should be given to individual differences, to the release of creative energies, and to the encouragement of each pupil to work up to his capacity.

An example of research in homemaking contrasting the goal-seeking and the conventional methods of teaching may be found in a comparatively recent study.[8] The research involved 35 classes, almost 900 students, taught by 17 teachers in 12 senior high schools. One section of the study dealt with a twelve-week unit in foods, the other with a four-week unit in consumer buying. The same objectives were used by all the classes, these objectives having been selected from an investigation indicating the goals most likely to be chosen by pupils at the senior-high-school level.[9]

In the experimental classes the teacher used whatever devices seemed necessary to make students aware of the goals and guided class discussion in such a way as to enable them to state these goals in their own words. Then the teachers and the pupils together planned and carried out experiences which would help the pupils attain the objectives agreed upon. Specially constructed self-teaching and self-checking materials were used continuously both by students and the teachers. The control groups were taught by

[8] Hazel M. Hatcher, "An Experimental Study to Determine the Relative Effectiveness at the Secondary Level of Two Methods of Instruction," *Journal of Experimental Education*, September, 1941.

[9] Clara M. Brown and Agnes A. Larson, *Tentative Course of Study in Homemaking Education for St. Paul Public Schools* (St. Paul, Minnesota: Department of Education, 1939).

the conventional method in which the teachers presented the goals to the students, outlined subject matter to be covered in the unit, and used whatever method of presentation seemed best to them. Evaluation was a continuous process, but the teacher did it all. The results of this research indicate that the experimental classes achieved more than did the control classes. In food classes which were taught by the goal-seeking method, the students were better informed, their laboratory performance was better, the products they prepared were of a higher quality, and their food habits showed definite improvement. Those taught in the conventional way showed less improvement in every respect tested. In fact, some of the pupils who had had reasonably good diets in the beginning reported somewhat less desirable diets after instruction.

In consumer buying as well as in foods the achievement of those allowed to have a high degree of participation in setting up goals, planning their work, and evaluating their own progress was consistently superior. The differences were so large that there was less than one chance in 100 that under similar conditions, senior-high-school classes taught by the conventional method would show achievement superior to that of students taught by the goal-seeking method. There was evidence that students in the group where there was maximum co-operation had greater knowledge about the purchases which they made, that they obtained more satisfactory information from clerks, and that they presented more evidence of learning in specific situations than did students in the group taught conventionally.

Teachers Like the Goal-Seeking Method

One experienced teacher, after experimenting with the method for several semesters in her senior-high-school classes, said:

> At the beginning it seemed almost impossible to break away from the traditional method of teaching with its stress on subject matter and its careful build-up of logical steps. We become too accustomed to teaching what we think should be taught and what is outlined in the course of study. But each semester of teaching with the new method has been more interesting and has provided me with new opportunities for experimenting.

The teacher's planning must be much more flexible under the new method. Detailed long-range planning is impossible because the students, when they make their periodic check-ups, may decide that they have accomplished what they wanted to do, without doing all the things they listed in the original plan. Or they may decide to spend more time on a certain phase of work than originally anticipated; or they may decide they should do something which had not been included when the plans were formulated.

When I had four 10–A classes each class set up essentially the same major goals, but each one attacked problems in a different way and planned work in a different sequence. These girls and boys, with one semester's experience in working with the new method, took relatively little time to set up their goals and to plan what they proposed to do, and they did the job in a business-like way. My 10–B group, which was made up of students whom I had never had in class before, took more time to set up their goals and to decide how they should work toward them.

The satisfaction shown by all students in making their own plans and in judging their accomplishment, and the atmosphere of co-operation which dominates the classroom represents one of the desirable outcomes of the new method of teaching, whether students are making fumbling attempts to participate in the new plan or are fairly expert in their efforts.[10]

Briefer comments made by other teachers are as follows:

Each student has an opportunity to voice an opinion and submit ideas.

When differences of opinion arise as to course content, the class asks for a vote and ungrudgingly abides by the decision.

Students accept responsibility and really share in setting up machinery to carry out their plans.

There is far less difficulty about food likes and dislikes and about getting done routine jobs.

Students tend to grow increasingly critical of their achievement as they evaluate their own work.

Classroom atmosphere is different. Discipline problems are reduced to a minimum because students feel their responsibility.

The student who is out of order feels the ill-will of the group.

[10] Helen F. Callahan, "Effective Teaching in Homemaking," *Journal of Home Economics*, May, 1942, pp. 295–296.

Pupils Like Goal-Seeking Procedures

Teachers are not the only ones who have commented on the difference between the conventional and the goal-seeking methods of teaching. Students also recognize that the two methods are not the same.[11] Comments by pupils taught by the conventional method are as follows:

> We didn't learn things that would help us very much.
>
> It is a very tiresome system.
>
> I'm not for anything in this method. It's too dry and boring. I hope the teacher uses some other plan next time.
>
> It's easy because the teacher does most of the work.
>
> We don't get a chance to plan what we want to do.

Pupils in classes where the goal-seeking method has been used say:

> We didn't have to go over the material we already knew.
>
> I like this method because we don't waste time. We are on the go every minute.
>
> It teaches us to think quicker and work faster.
>
> I learned how to depend on myself.
>
> We learned how little we knew, and then we were anxious to find out how to do things correctly.
>
> I enjoyed the class discussions. We all had a chance to say what we thought.
>
> I found scoring myself difficult but also most interesting. It certainly takes any conceit out of you.

In general, an analysis of student opinions regarding the two methods of teaching shows the following brief comparison:

Conventional Method	*Goal-Seeking Method*
Subject matter is presented in more orderly manner.	Subject matter has more meaning.
Class procedure monotonous.	Class work interesting and varied.
Too few things learned because of too much stress on unnecessary details and memory work.	More learning in less time because checking devices are frequently used.
Easier for the teacher.	Better for pupil because development of responsibility and judgment is encouraged.

[11] Hazel M. Hatcher, "An Experimental Study to Determine the Relative Effectiveness at the Secondary Level of Two Methods of Instruction" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1940), pp. 147–149.

Pupils' comments indicate a better attitude toward school work, more interest in learning, and the development of greater pupil initiative, independence, and judgment in the groups taught by the goal-seeking method than in the groups taught conventionally.

Putting Goal-Seeking Techniques into Practice

Teachers who have had recent training — this includes experienced teachers as well as the younger group just out of college — are usually eager to put into practice newer methods of teaching even though the superintendent and the majority of the teachers cling to the conventional method. Experienced teachers who have not had recent training but who are dissatisfied with the results which they have been getting may also be anxious to use newer methods. They may want to try goal-seeking techniques but may be timid about attempting something different from their usual procedure. In trying to put the method into practice both experienced and inexperienced teachers may find the following suggestions helpful.

TOLERATE OTHER POINTS OF VIEW

Every teacher needs to be open-minded, but it is particularly important for a teacher using a newer method not to condemn those who may disagree with her. She needs to realize that many people find it difficult to change long-standing habits of teaching procedure and that they feel much more secure in dealing with things that are familiar to them. If certain teachers insist upon emphasizing subject matter to the exclusion of other things, a teacher using goal-seeking techniques should not minimize the importance of factual knowledge but should realize that it has its place along with the method itself. Some difference of opinion is inevitable when a new method is being tried out. Some educators, moreover, believe that a reasonable amount of different opinions is a good thing because it often brings about more self-evaluation and growth.

CO-OPERATE WITH THE ADMINISTRATION AND COMMUNITY

One of the most important things in life is getting along well with other people. A teacher who fails to co-operate with the school or community in which she teaches stands little chance of having her method serve as an example for others to follow. In every school and community when a new method is being tried out, there are certain things which must be taken into consideration. In the first place, a teacher should keep in mind the policies of the administration. Policies may vary from school to school, but the most successful teacher studies the situation in her own community and follows the policies which the administration desires as far as she can without affecting her own beliefs or becoming a "yes" person.

For example, teachers should not ask for anything which seems unreasonable in cost in the light of the administration's policy. Some superintendents complain that the new-type tests are too expensive for use in their schools. While it is desirable for each pupil to have a copy of a test, in situations where this is not possible teachers have worked out other ways of using new-type test questions. In small classes, for example, a test in home-furnishing may be placed at intervals around the room, and one or two students at a time may go to each part of the test, writing their answers on an answer sheet which in most cases requires but one piece of paper per person. For large classes, it is sometimes possible to use the blackboard and provide answer sheets only. In any case the teacher should be cautious about spending too much money on a method which has yet to prove its worth to the administration. It is, of course, perfectly possible to spend either more or less money on the goal-seeking method than on the conventional method. The situation calls for judgment and ingenuity. In fact the average homemaking teacher will find that although she may wish to buy certain kinds of new materials, if she has taught her pupils by the goal-seeking method, they will tend not only to acquire initiative and ability to work independently but to be able to utilize at little or no cost many resources in the school, the home and the community which the teacher herself might not have thought of or had access to. This matter is discussed at length in Chapter 14, "Teaching Aids."

The teacher should bear in mind, on the other hand, that many superintendents are more desirous of spending money to improve the department than is the teacher herself. It is the teacher's responsibility to study the entire situation and on the basis of this knowledge to formulate well-made plans for spending. Then she will be far more likely to get what she wants from the administration than if she simply makes an impersonal request for materials.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Have you talked with teachers or pupils who have used different methods? What were their reactions?
2. Besides the changing conditions mentioned in this chapter, what other social and economic developments make the goal-seeking method desirable?
3. To what extent are teachers unconsciously deceiving themselves when they say they cannot try out new methods where they teach?
4. What are the reasons mentioned by experienced teachers for not trying goal-seeking techniques? Do you question their validity? Support your case.
5. What might the teacher working co-operatively with the students do to avoid conflicts of opinion with teachers using the conventional method?

3

Setting up Goals

All intelligent action is action for the sake of an end.

ARISTOTLE

In order to comprehend more fully how goal-seeking procedure functions in the classroom, the next three chapters will explain in detail the process of setting up goals, choosing experiences, and evaluating achievement.

It appears to be the consensus of opinion among twentieth-century educators that optimum learning takes place when students have a definite goal toward which they can direct their thoughts and energies. It is believed that most behavior is purposive in nature and needs only suitable guidance to make adequate learning result. For the teacher, this opinion simply means that pupils should be directed toward goals that are worthwhile and that have educational significance.

Arriving at suitable goals not only implies a thorough understanding by the teacher of the pupil's viewpoint, but necessitates a well-organized plan of procedure. The plan of procedure may be outlined in three steps: (1) the teacher sets up tentative objectives based on pupils' needs, interests, and abilities; (2) the teacher guides pupils to accept these goals or to choose other worth-while ones; and (3) the teacher helps pupils to state goals in their own words. Each of these three steps will be discussed in detail.

Setting up Tentative Goals

In considering tentative goals or objectives which will eventually motivate activity, the teacher must first realize that these objectives

should possess certain general qualifications if they are to be acceptable to the pupils. The pupils are primarily interested in themselves and their immediate environment. As they mature, their interests will expand and will eventually extend to the social world about them. First of all, however, if they are to meet this social world adequately, they must be trained to build up correct personal habits and acceptable patterns of behavior. The best way to do this probably is to base the objectives on the personal needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils themselves.

PUPIL NEEDS AND INTERESTS

Before setting up any tentative objectives the teacher must have in mind not only the general aims of education but a rather clear-cut picture of the sort of person whom she hopes will eventually emerge from the schools and from her classroom in particular. Probably all educators would agree that one of the chief aims of education is to develop individuals for effective participation in the society in which they live. If education is thought of as a growth process and the teacher as one who primarily influences or determines the growth of pupils so as best to insure their effective social adjustment, then the school becomes a constructive factor in the life of every pupil. Modern society has established definite behavior patterns for individuals to follow and has set up standards of conduct by which each person is evaluated. One of the important problems of the teacher is to crystallize these patterns of behavior and standards of conduct into desirable personality characteristics which she may develop in the pupils and which pupils themselves will desire to achieve in order to cope adequately with the complex society of today.

Chief among these characteristics is independence of thought and action accompanied by a feeling of responsibility for one's actions. Closely allied to this is the ability to face reality and to attain poise even under difficult circumstances. This entails acquiring self-control and an awareness of one's assets and limitations with a knowledge of how to resolve conflicts and how to accept disappointments without being resentful. Ability to understand more fully the meanings of honesty, modesty, justice, honor, and the like is a

natural part of the growing up process, but guidance is needed to encourage the formulation of acceptable ideals. Pupils may be expected to achieve the characteristics just mentioned in varying degrees. Some will learn more quickly than others how to get along with all sorts of people, but co-operation with others and consideration for others in the classroom should be set as standards for all pupils to achieve.

For some time educators have realized that interest is a vital factor in learning. The tendency at the present time is to arrange the process of education so that it interests the pupils. This is based on the assumption that the mind does not begin to function adequately until it is aroused. Most teachers realize that there are two kinds of interest — native and acquired. Some things are just naturally interesting to a pupil, such as making candy, preparing refreshments for a party, or selecting party clothes. Interest in these things is immediately aroused and does not have to be encouraged by the teacher. On the other hand, acquired interests are built up slowly and depend on associating old interests with the new. For instance, pupils who think that a class in consumer buying may be uninteresting often change their minds if they are allowed to do some of the family buying. Likewise, pupils who have little or no interest in nutrition may develop an intense interest if the class work is related to their health and happiness. Thus the teacher can build up new attitudes in a natural and effective way by identifying them with personal interests and by connecting them with some of the pupils' life experiences. It should be realized, however, that all interests fluctuate: some are of short duration, but others, once acquired, change little over long periods of time.

It is also essential to recognize certain specific needs and interests of pupils in order to establish suitable objectives. Research has shown that there are general objectives which are of interest to girls of all ages, such as (1) to learn to prepare and serve meals for specific occasions; (2) to learn to be a good hostess; (3) to be able to be the kind of friend I would like to have; (4) to learn how to feel at ease with people and how to avoid embarrassing situations; (5) to be able to decide when a thing is right and when it is wrong.[1]

[1] Clara M. Brown and Agnes A. Larson, *Tentative Course of Study in Homemaking Education for St. Paul Public Schools* (St. Paul, Minnesota: Department of Education, 1939).

While many of the objectives may overlap from one age to another, there are trends in behavior which tend to appear at various grade levels and which may serve as a basis for determining pupil needs and interests.

In general, girls in the *seventh and eighth grades* live very closely with their families. Their home responsibilities include the care of younger brothers and sisters, going to the store, helping with the dishwashing, setting the table, running errands, and doing other small chores around the house. Girls at this age are interested in playing with small children or with groups of boys and girls their own age. They like to congregate together for games, club meetings, and picnics. Collecting various articles is particularly interesting at this period. They like to do things for other people, especially for their teachers. There is also a tendency to use imagination and to pretend that they are famous personages. About this time they become interested in the church, the 4–H club, and the Girl Scouts.

Objectives based on needs and interests at this level might well include: (1) to learn how to keep young children from getting hurt; (2) to find out how courses in homemaking can help one to get a part-time job; (3) to learn to keep the kitchen clean and in order; (4) to learn what stories are suitable for children and to be able to tell them so that they will be enjoyed; (5) to learn how to make children's toys out of scraps; (6) to have a hobby.

Girls in the *ninth and tenth grades* have as a rule reached the age when they want a room or space of their own. At this age they like to entertain their friends in their own homes even though they tend to become very critical of home conditions. They criticize their parents and are irritated by their younger brothers and sisters. Guidance in recognizing and understanding family problems is particularly necessary at this period. About this time they become more interested in their personal appearance than they have been before. They like to try out whatever happens to be in style at the moment in dress, in hair arrangement, and particularly in cosmetics, but often fail to discriminate between good grooming and faddish sophistication. At this age there is also a definite need for personal hygiene. The complexion, the diet, and the weight should

be watched. Girls at this period often live a daydream existence imagining themselves in all sorts of unusual situations. They like boys but tend to congregate with girls, often feeling a little self-conscious when alone with boys. During the tenth grade, girls generally become more interested in social functions and concentrate on individuals rather than on the group.

At the *ninth and tenth grade level* the following objectives should be especially appropriate: (1) to learn how to renovate or remodel clothes to make them becoming or up-to-date; (2) to learn how to set an attractive table; (3) to learn how to become a good hostess; (4) to learn how to arrange flowers; (5) to be able to be the kind of friend I would like to have; (6) to know how to divide the family clothing allowance fairly; (7) to learn how to get along better with younger brothers and sisters; (8) to be able to understand the teacher's point of view in relationships; (9) to learn how to take criticism; (10) to be able to arrange a bedroom so that it can be shared by two or more people; (11) to learn how living rooms may be attractively arranged.

In the *eleventh and twelfth grades*, girls in general cease to daydream but are likely to have a keen interest in their own love affairs and those of their friends. They are also more interested in going out with different boy friends than before and are more mature in their attitudes. This implies an expansion of interests which with the brighter girls tends to become more scientific in nature. Intensive instruction along the lines of their major interests is an essential need.

At this level the needs and interests are broader in scope and objectives which seem particularly suitable are these: (1) to find out how homemaking can help one obtain a full-time job after graduation; (2) to know what social service agencies contribute to maternal and child welfare; (3) to understand how much it costs to run a home; (4) to be able to evaluate one's own ability to do many useful things, such as planning, preparing, and serving meals; making and caring for clothes; taking care of children; and scheduling work to get it done on time; (5) to learn how much it costs to furnish a home; (6) to learn how to rearrange kitchen equipment to save time and energy; (7) to be able to feel at ease in social situations; (8) to learn to evaluate advertising material.

PUPIL ABILITIES

It seems logical to conclude that all objectives should be adapted in so far as possible to the pupil's mental and physical ability, but since individual differences exist to varying degrees in every classroom, it is not always an easy task to adjust the techniques of teaching to the learning capacity of each pupil. All pupils differ in physiological and anatomical development, in general intelligence, in ability to get along with others, in social maturity, and in other traits. Probably the individual difference in which teachers are most interested is that of general intelligence. The matter of intelligence is an intricate and involved problem, and there is much controversy as to just what the term involves. Briefly it may be said that experiments have shown that ability to learn is general rather than specific and that a pupil who is quick to learn one kind of subject matter, other things being equal, is quick to learn another kind. Conversely, the slow pupil tends to learn all things slowly.

Thus teachers soon recognize the pupils who learn quickly and those who learn slowly and tend to classify them as bright, normal, dull, or subnormal. This, of course, is only a rough classification especially if the teacher's judgment is based on observations of the rapidity or slowness with which pupils assimilate new subject matter or on the results of a test or two. It must be remembered that a single test measures only a small fraction of a pupil's total ability; some tests evaluate ability to perform while others measure abstract reasoning power or knowledge possessed at the time of the test. (See Chapter 6, "Growth Records.") Such tests are valuable only if the teacher keeps their limitations in mind and does not attempt to classify her pupils too strictly on the basis of a few tests. The teacher should realize in determining pupil ability that other factors operate, such as previous training, home environment, scholastic success or failure, and more often than not difference of interest, and she should not make definite evaluation of a pupil's ability until various factors have been taken into consideration. Even then the true nature of mental ability cannot be completely evaluated because scientific experimentation has yet to determine

all the abilities, traits, and capacities possible and to work out the relationship among them. Teachers, therefore, should guard against too rigid a classification of the ability of any one pupil.

Perhaps the question of setting up objectives based on pupil ability should be thought of in terms of behavior patterns which tend to appear at various ages. These patterns of behavior can be estimated only roughly, but when applied to grade levels, they aid the teacher in setting up suitable objectives for the wide range of abilities encountered in every classroom.

For example, girls in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades have a shorter span of attention than older girls. Also, perfect muscular co-ordination, as a rule, has not yet been attained, and fine handwork is difficult and in some cases impossible to achieve. As the girls grow older, the span of attention increases in length until at the senior-high-school level the ability to concentrate for long periods of time is more noticeable than at the earlier levels. Muscular co-ordination tends to improve with an increase in age and should be well under control by the eleventh grade. With these tendencies as a guide, certain general principles may be followed in setting up suitable objectives commensurate with pupil ability.

Difficulty of Goals

Make the work just beyond the pupil's reach and increase the difficulty as the student matures. Above all, encourage pupils to feel that they can succeed. Success stimulates greater effort; failure deadens it.

Length of Goals

Start with tasks within the range of the student's ability to concentrate and increase the length of the task as the pupil matures. In order that the dull pupils may be able to understand the objectives and the bright students may feel that the goals offer a real challenge to their ability, it is very essential for the teacher to have a flexible classroom program which can take into consideration, in so far as possible, differences in ability. Just how this can be worked out will be explained in detail in Chapter 4, "Choosing Experiences."

EVALUATING OBJECTIVES

While a comprehensive knowledge of the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils is essential for each teacher if she is to formulate tentative objectives for her groups, it is also vitally important for her to know how to express these objectives in simple, clear, concise terminology and to know how to evaluate them. This requires careful thought and preparation if vague and confusing statements are to be avoided. Even a clearly stated objective may have one meaning for the teacher and quite another meaning to the pupils. Such an objective is a poor one.

For example, the following objective found in a course of study illustrates the teacher's statement of an objective: to meet the need of adolescents in the basic aspects of living in such a way that they may enjoy life to its fullest extent. This objective may be thoroughly understood by the teacher, who possesses well-formulated ideas of what the basic aspects of living are and how the acquisition of good habits may result in a full and happy life; but would the ideas of the average pupil with a limited experience coincide with those of the teacher? Probably not. In fact, such an objective might mean any one of a number of things to the pupil, whose scope of experience is bound to be narrow. It would be better to break down this objective into several simpler objectives: (1) to learn how to act wherever I am and to be able to talk to people I meet; (2) to be able to get along with brothers, sisters, and friends; (3) to know how to manage my money; (4) to learn how rooms may be attractively and conveniently arranged; (5) to be able to plan, prepare, and serve family meals that are good and attractive; (6) to be able to buy some of the things my family uses, such as food and clothing.

For further illustration, an objective in consumer buying might be stated in academic terminology like this: to develop economic and aesthetic standards which will enable one to make a wise selection of (*a*) material and designs for clothing to be made; (*b*) garments one may buy ready-made; (*c*) articles to be purchased, as shoes, hose, and accessories. A better objective for the pupil would be this: to learn how to buy some of the family clothing.

Still another example. The teacher might offer the objective: to develop an understanding of the relationship between personal charm and the acquisition of friends and to create an interest in developing good qualities of personality. A simpler statement for the pupil would be this: to learn how to be a good friend. These examples illustrate in what vague and confusing terminology objectives are often stated. Although academically sound and clear to the teacher, they may be meaningless to the average pupil.

In evaluating objectives the teacher might ask herself the following questions: Do these objectives contribute to the newer aims of education — that is, developing students for intelligent participation in life — and to the aims of homemaking? Are they attainable? Are they expressed in terms of real-life experiences? Are they simple enough for students to understand? If the teacher can answer these questions to her own satisfaction, then she may have some assurance that the objectives she has tentatively formulated can become pupil objectives.

Guiding Pupils in Choosing Goals

After the teacher has carefully considered the matter of tentative goals and is satisfied in her own mind that those she has selected are most suitable from the standpoint of pupils' needs, interests, and abilities, it then becomes her obligation to attempt to focus the attention of the pupils on the new unit so that it can be determined whether or not the tentative goals selected are really pupil goals. Possible approaches are limited only by the teacher's imagination. The following types are suggested:

Bulletin-board arrangements or exhibits. An approach of this kind may be used alone or in combination with other approaches. It is suited to nearly all adolescents and may be very simple, consisting of one or two articles carefully chosen.

Relating a new unit to a previous unit or to some special future event. For certain objectives, past activities of the class may serve as a background for introducing the new unit. For instance, in seeking to improve facial appearance and complexion, the question of eating habits may arise. In that case it should be comparatively easy to approach

the goal "to learn to eat the food I need." In addition to relating the new unit to a previous one, the approach may be built around some special event which is coming up in the near future. For example, if the teacher has heard several girls in the class talking about an out-of-town trip with the band, she could use this as a basis for her interest approach to the goal "to learn how to select meals in public places."

Self-rating devices. Having pupils rate themselves on various aspects of grooming should afford a particularly good lesson approach for a class in which most of the pupils would rate low in personal appearance but yet are entirely satisfied with their own appearance.

Games. There are various games which may be adapted to setting the stage for a unit. For instance the goal "to learn how to evaluate advertising" can be approached by cutting out and arranging around the room advertisements of products usable in personal care from which sales names have been omitted and by then having the class try to identify the products and record the names. The advertisements might be for cosmetics, mouth washes, hair tonics, toothpaste, and eyewashes. From this it would be just a step to raising the question: "To what extent can we depend on the reliability of these ads?"

Skits and plays. A skit or play is frequently one of the best ways of focusing the attention of the class on the new unit. The preparation of such a play or skit may provide an interesting experience for the several pupils who finish a unit one or two periods before the rest of the class.

Movies. A movie emphasizing some phase or phases of the new unit may be used as part of the lesson approach. Many films are free except for mailing charges; and others require only a small fee per day or per week. (See pages 308–310.)

Talk or demonstration. An outside speaker or a person who combines a talk with a demonstration may be particularly helpful in setting the stage for certain goals, such as: "to be able to render first aid in an emergency," or: "to understand causes of friction between employers and employees."

Whatever type of lesson approach is chosen, the teacher should be able to sense whether or not the tentative goals she has in mind are really the pupils' goals. If she finds the pupils' goals to be something different, she should temporarily discard her own goals and substitute theirs. In other words, if the pupils do not readily accept the tentative goals as their own, then there is probably some-

thing faulty in the teacher's understanding of pupils' needs and interests, and she needs to make a greater effort to enlarge upon that understanding.

As pupils gain experience in helping to set their own goals, they become progressively better able to work with less help from the teacher. To help the class become more or less independent in goal setting should be a definite objective for the teacher to achieve, although she should realize that learning how to choose goals is just as much a learning process as learning how to become a good hostess.

Stating Goals

As soon as the teacher believes her thinking to be in accord with the goals of the pupils, she should attempt to guide the discussion so that the class will be led to state the goals in their own words. The words need not be the same as the teacher would use but should express the ideas of the group. For instance, the teacher may be thinking of the objective "to keep the kitchen clean and in order," but the class may say "to leave the kitchen as we found it or better." Obviously the latter statement should be used because it is easier for the teacher to work at the pupils' level than the pupils at the teachers'.

The main point, of course, is to encourage class discussion. This means securing participation from all the members of the group in so far as possible. In many classes there is a tendency for the bright pupils to monopolize the discussion. The teacher should take special care to avoid this and should encourage the more timid students to make a contribution as well. Active participation in a discussion brings about a sense of belongingness and makes pupils feel that they have a share in setting the goals. Since all the suggestions made cannot be accepted, it is necessary for the teacher to guide the pupils in evaluating each contribution. This requires tactful handling on the part of the teacher so that no one pupil may seem slighted and so that all may feel fairly treated. Never should the teacher undervalue a contribution or say to a pupil, "No, that is not right," or "You shouldn't have said that." If the pupil is

wrong, she will usually discover it for herself before the discussion has ended. Each pupil should be made to feel that her suggestion contributes to the discussion in some way. At the same time, the teacher should make it clear to the class that all discussions must eventually lead to the correct conclusions and that sifting and weighing evidence is an important and necessary part of any discussion.

Parents and Goal-Setting

The tendency at the present time is to give parents a prominent place in goal-setting procedure. In many instances parents know pupils' needs, interests, and abilities far better than the teacher does, perhaps even more so than the pupils themselves. Parents have a point of view the teacher should recognize simply because they can evaluate their own children far better than the teacher who by virtue of her position must often consider her pupils as a group rather than individual members. Therefore, parents' suggestions are invaluable to the teacher in setting up goals for the class. In some cases, of course, parents will not be able or willing at first to visit the classroom, but the teacher will almost always be welcomed into the home, especially when parents are led to see that their contributions to the school program are considered valuable and worthwhile. This is particularly important for parents of low economic status who may continue to hesitate to come to school because of inappropriate dress, but who nevertheless need the benefits of adequate school instruction for their children. No matter how humble the home, suggestions should be encouraged and carefully noted by the teacher. Whenever possible, goal setting should be a three-way proposition with parent-pupil-teacher participation.

Individual Goals

In addition to pupil goals which serve the class as a whole, various individuals may have and should be encouraged to have special goals toward which a part of their efforts is directed. For instance, the teacher without the knowledge of anyone else may be

working toward the development of greater independence on the part of the group, and she may also be concentrating her efforts toward establishing better home relations between Mary and her grandmother. Or, Joan may be trying to co-operate with others more than she has previously done. Her parents may have the special goal of providing home experiences. They may have learned from Joan or her teacher that the buying experience of pupils at school is necessarily limited, and they may supplement this by encouraging Joan to do considerable family buying. With the co-operation of the parents from time to time, it should not be difficult for the teacher to plan many class goals which may be directed toward special home situations as well. In this way class experiences tend to take on additional meaning for many pupils who might otherwise fail to receive the maximum benefit of class goals. After all, real education implies adapting procedures to the individual in so far as possible since it is generally believed that taking into consideration the needs, interests, and abilities of each individual will bring about a more harmonious adjustment to the world at large.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. The following goals are stated in teacher terminology. Restate each goal in language which would be simpler for the pupil to understand. Then describe briefly the group for which you think each goal would probably be suitable.
   (*a*) To encourage an appreciation of clothing in the high-school pupil with reference to its becomingness in line, color, and texture, its suitability to the occasion, and its relation to other garments and accessories.
   (*b*) To develop interest and skill in using commercial patterns and in constructing and fitting garments to enable one to make satisfactory clothing with reasonable skill and speed.
   (*c*) To develop a better appreciation of the importance of health to the individual and the part food and habits play in acquiring and maintaining it.
   (*d*) To know what principles underlie food preservation and to learn what methods of preservation best carry out these principles.

(*e*) To develop an appreciation of home as a center of recreation and hospitality and to develop the ability to participate in these activities.

(*f*) To be able to organize work in the home in keeping with time and endurance.

(*g*) To discover what the authentic sources of information are and how to distinguish between advertisements that are truthful and those that are not.

(*h*) To develop an appreciation of the selection of children's clothing in relation to their development.

(*i*) To develop some ability and interest in making the kitchen as attractive and efficient as possible by the use of its present equipment and some appreciation of the possibility of improving it.

2. Bearing in mind the group for which you have restated one of the goals above, suggest as many possible lesson approaches as you can.
3. Compile suggestions for gaining parents' co-operation and help in goal setting.

4

Choosing Experiences

Man creates himself by his own activity.

IMMANUEL KANT

It has been pointed out that the teacher not only sets up tentative goals based on the pupils' needs, interests, and abilities, but also guides the pupils in accepting these or other worth-while goals and in expressing them in terminology commensurate with their age level and ability. The next step in goal-seeking procedure is to select adequate experiences which will lead to the achievement of the objectives that have been chosen, since suitable experiences in education constitute the key to effective learning.[1]

Defining the Term Experience

In the first place, just what does the term experience mean? People have sometimes thought of experience as a physical activity and have had little regard for the mental factor involved. At the present time, however, new methods of classroom instruction have given the word a much broader connotation. Nowadays the word not only emphasizes mental as well as physical elements but shows a relationship to everyday experiences. Thus in modern educational writing the term experience refers usually to any unit of work of educative value undertaken and carried out by a classroom group as a result of a purposeful program. In a narrower sense it refers to the daily development of the work within the unit.

While it is probably neither possible nor desirable to separate

[1] See Appendix, Exhibit D, for demonstration lesson in consumer buying which illustrates co-operative planning in choosing experiences.

mental experience from physical experience, there are certain objectives which may include more mental response than physical or vice versa. The following examples may serve as illustrations:

(1) *Objective:* To know how to select meals in public places.

Experiences: *Largely Mental:* List unusual terms appearing on menus and find out what they mean.

Both Physical and Mental: Set up a cafeteria from food models.

(2) *Objective:* To learn to be a good hostess.

Experiences: *Largely Mental:* List some of the ways in which a hostess may help to make her guests feel at ease.

Both Physical and Mental: As a class project, plan a tea or other occasion in which the class is hostess to another group.

The teacher must at all times balance the mental experiences with the physical if an all-around development of the pupil is to be attained.

Guiding Pupils in Choosing Experiences

To anyone who understands the nature of adolescents, it is obvious that simply asking the question "What do you want to do today?" is not going to produce the desired results. Most teachers know only too well that students do not know offhand what they want to do and that given freedom of choice, they will often respond with the first thought that comes into their minds. More often than not this is apt to be whimsical in nature and not based on any carefully thought out plan of action. In order to avoid a time-consuming situation in which nothing much is accomplished, the teacher should control the classroom environment and direct the choice of experiences. If the class has come to respect her leadership, this control should not be difficult, provided, of course, that the teacher has already evaluated the previous experience, the maturity, and the ability of her pupils. As in choosing goals,

classroom discussion of possible experiences is of vital importance if the experiences are to be entered into wholeheartedly. The discussion should not be so restricted that pupils feel that their contributions toward planning experiences are unimportant to the teacher. Much is gained if all the pupils feel that they have the responsibility of finding out how to proceed and if they have enough freedom to go ahead without being moved around like chessmen by the teacher.

At first it may be difficult for pupils to plan suitable experiences. Perhaps all they should be expected to do at this stage is to choose from among a group of experiences. For example, in the following objective a choice gives a feeling of importance to the student.

Objective: To be able to judge recipes as to the number of servings, the cost, the difficulty of preparation, and the ingredients necessary.

Experiences: (1) Figure the cost of foods prepared in class and determine the number of servings provided.

(2) Figure the cost of foods prepared at home and approximate cost per family member.

In the following example, any of the three suggestions may be equally good for a particular class, or the pupils may know better than does the teacher which one to choose.

Objective: To learn how to keep the kitchen clean and in order.

Experiences: (1) Make a time study to find out the most efficient way to wash dishes.

(2) Demonstrate the proper way to care for equipment made from different materials such as aluminum, silver, enamel, etc.

(3) Make a display of cleaning equipment and supplies on the market.

As the pupils gain more experience, they will learn to make their own suggestions and will not need to be given choices among teacher-planned experiences.

Evaluating Experiences

All suggestions must be evaluated from the point of view of leading more or less directly to the goals under consideration. Pupils should be made to realize that other goals may be just as important as those the pupils have decided upon, but that it is best to limit experiences as nearly as possible to a particular goal. For example, one of the following experiences would not lead to the goal under consideration but would lead instead to another goal related to it.

Objective: To learn to make children's toys out of scraps.

Direct Experience: Construct or help a child to construct a toy. Observe his enjoyment of the toy.

Related Experience: Make an exhibit showing practical ways to teach children to take care of belongings for which they are responsible, such as clothes, toys, or personal items such as towels, washcloths, and toothbrushes.

The pupils should be made to understand that though the related experience cannot be used now, it might perhaps be used in setting up a goal to be accomplished later.

Flexibility of Experiences

All experiences should be considered tentative and capable of modification in the course of developments. Frequently an experience will have to be changed if the group finds a variation in conditions or if additional evidence makes them realize that they have overlooked something. The following examples will illustrate this point.

Objective: To learn how to arrange flowers.

Experience: Collect pictures of flower arrangements.

While this experience leads directly to the goal under consideration, it has not afforded an opportunity for the actual demonstration of flower arrangement. Therefore, the class may decide that the

following additional experience is desirable: Have groups of students make flower arrangements of flowers, leaves, berries, or grasses which are in season. Encourage class criticism.

Objective: To learn how to get the most for your money when buying certain articles such as cosmetics.

Experience: Make a study of cosmetic advertisements in several magazines and decide what appeals are used and whether or not the product justifies the appeals.

No one would question the fact that this experience would lead to the goal decided upon, but if a more adequate study of the situation is to be made, the class might decide that two other experiences might better serve the purpose.

Experiences: (1) Carry out an analysis of four recent purchases of cosmetics you have made.

(2) Investigate the possibility of buying chemicals at the drug store and making such products as bath salts and toilet water.

This factor of flexibility as regards experiences should not imply that objectives or experiences are to be selected for the purpose of changing them. It should be clearly understood that they may be changed, but that they do not have to be changed. In fact, they should not be changed unless something better can be substituted. The main point to remember is that no procedure should be so fixed once and for all that it cannot be modified or even abandoned. It is only through such a tentative attitude that real progress can be made.

Individual and Group Experiences

Even when working on the same objective, all students need not work on the same experience. The class may be divided into groups, or there may be one group and several individuals working on different experiences. In either case all are directed toward the same objective. If the teacher keeps a flexible program in progress, it is possible for the pupils to work out combinations of experiences

in which there is the greatest interest for all concerned. For example, the

Objective: To be able to plan and give a party for children, would make provision for just this sort of thing. Any number of combinations are possible, either for individuals or for groups of students.

Experiences: (1) Make or collect favors which would be suitable for the children's party you have planned. (Get approval of a large group before proceeding beyond plans if individuals take this activity.)

(2) Plan some menus which would be suitable for a children's party. (Get the approval of the class if used as an individual activity.)

(3) List play activities including games, songs, and stories suitable for a children's party. (Get the reaction of the class if used as an individual activity.)

While individual experiences should be permitted in each class, it is equally important to see that group experiences are maintained. Learning to work together is essential in a democratic society, and to encourage the development of the ability to conform to group order and group authority should be a constant aim of the teacher.

Individual Differences

As already stated, most teachers are confronted with all levels of ability in their classrooms, and if optimum learning is to result, they must make allowances for the pupils who are unusually dull or particularly bright. Guided by a teacher who has evaluated the different abilities in her classroom, the choosing of experiences offers splendid possibilities for this variation in ability without making it too obvious to the pupils that such discrepancies exist. Differences in ability, if tactfully handled by the teacher, can be made to appear as differences in interest. This treatment creates a much better feeling than does permitting the dull pupils to realize

that many of the experiences suggested might be beyond the level of their ability. The choosing of experiences is also pleasing to the bright pupils, who would not be interested in experiences too far below the level of their ability. The teacher, however, should take special care not to minimize the experiences of the duller pupils, no matter how simple or different they may be. If intensely interested in a task, pupils with less ability will sometimes do even better work than pupils with more ability. The class, however, should feel that they are all working together as a group and that each experience contributes in some way toward the achievement of the objectives toward which they are working.

In planning for individual experiences, two procedures are possible. If the objective makes it advisable for the class to work as a group, one of the brighter girls may be chosen as chairman. Under the supervision of the teacher and the guidance of the chairman, girls who are less bright can easily participate in experiences commensurate with their ability. For example, if the class is working on the objective "to learn how to arrange storage space in a homemaking laboratory so that it will be convenient," experiences might include: (1) evaluating the present storage space in the department; (2) improving present storage space; (3) planning new storage space; (4) collecting illustrations of and articles about convenient storage arrangements; (5) making simple storage facilities of a nature usable at home. The better students would probably choose evaluating and improving the storage space while the less bright pupils would probably be more interested in collecting illustrations and articles.

If, on the other hand, the objective makes it advisable for the class to work in groups, a general chairman would be needed to coordinate the work of the groups. She should probably be a pupil of rather high intelligence. Subchairmen might also be selected, one for each group. An objective of this type would be "to be able to plan, prepare, and serve food for children so that they will enjoy it." The class may have decided upon the following experiences for this: (1) collect recipes and suggestions for the preparation of simple, nourishing foods in a variety of ways; (2) collect pictures of equipment for serving meals to children; (3) collect pictures and sug-

gestions of surprise ways of serving children's foods; (4) plan a meal suitable for children in the play school; (5) prepare and serve a meal to children in the play school. Experience 2, that of collecting pictures of facilities for serving meals to children, would probably be especially interesting to pupils of average or superior ability. Experiences 1 and 3, those of collecting recipes and of collecting suggestions for surprise ways of serving, might be managed successfully by pupils with less ability. The superior students in the class would be apt to prefer experience 4, that of planning a meal suitable for children. Experience 5, that of preparing and serving a meal to children, is one which pupils of all levels of ability seem to enjoy equally.

In choosing these particular objectives and experiences as illustrations of how to provide for individual differences, there may appear to be strict lines of demarcation between what the bright students are capable of doing and what the duller students can do. Any such impression is contrary to the spirit of goal-seeking techniques. Students of low ability should not be kept from participating in experiences in which they are genuinely interested. The aim in offering suggestions for individual differences is to guide the teacher to evaluate situations which require different types of ability and to encourage student participation in experiences which will bring success. Sometimes pupils who have already been motivated to do comparatively easy things which bring success can be encouraged as time goes on to participate in more difficult experiences. Success in the first instance acts as a reward, which many modern educators now believe to be an essential factor in the learning process. Without success the drive or desire to attempt new experiences either stays at a low level or fails to function at all. For example, it is desirable that most girls learn how to plan suitable menus for children. Bright pupils with adequate training would probably have little or no trouble in formulating a total picture of how to plan menus for children. Girls of lower intelligence, however, would need to learn the procedure by starting with simple aspects such as experiences 1 and 3 and then working toward those that were more difficult.

Developing Group Leadership

In any group of students there are always a certain number of pupils who stand out as leaders. One of the chief aims of education in a democracy is to develop and guide those students who are capable of leadership. Conventional methods of education in the past have looked upon the teacher as the sole leader of the class, but as already pointed out, goal-seeking procedure advocates that pupils who appear to possess characteristics which make good leaders be given an opportunity to learn how to attain competent and successful leadership. Some of these characteristics, such as self-confidence, initiative, persistence, courage, sympathy and understanding, honesty, and originality, are easily recognized by the teacher. No single one of these traits, of course, makes a leader, but taken as a whole they tend to produce the sort of person who is best suited to guide others. Sometimes a pupil will possess several of the traits needed for leadership but will be lacking in self-confidence. If the teacher feels that this pupil really has possibilities as a leader, she should create situations which will help develop self-confidence. This can be done by encouraging the student to assume responsibilities which the teacher is sure the girl can manage but which on her own initiative the girl is not certain she could carry out. If the teacher avoids any semblance of partiality to students with a gift for leadership but gives them an opportunity to show the rest of the class that they are qualified to lead, it is possible for her to develop excellent leadership within the group without creating antagonism.

All pupils in the class should, of course, be given a chance to demonstrate whether or not they possess qualifications or potentialities for leadership. It is true that some pupils may be better leaders than others, but the teacher should give all students an equal chance to show what they can do and to learn to lead better. This means also that even though certain pupils are natural-born leaders, they should be led to realize that it is just as important to be a good follower at times as it is to be a good leader.

The following objectives offer experiences which encourage leadership:

Objective: To plan and carry out different kinds of entertainment for family and friends.

Experience: Divide the class into small groups and let each group entertain another group at a buffet meal, tea, formal dinner, etc. (Group chairmen are leaders.)

Objective: To be able to plan and carry out a project in community improvement.

Experiences: (1) Pick out some underprivileged family. Carry out a project in home improvement such as cleaning up the yard and planting flowers or shrubs.

(2) Co-operate with some civic agency responsible for community improvement.

(3) Select, make plans, and beautify some community spot.

(4) Choose a chairman to make arrangements for all these experiences.

Experiences for Different Grades

As previously mentioned, the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils can best be met by taking into account certain behavior patterns which tend to appear at various age levels. If the experiences to be chosen can center around these behavior trends, it is believed that the goals in view will be more easily attained. Take the objective "to be able to be the kind of a friend I would like to have," for example; and see what experiences best fit the behavior trends at the various grade levels.

Girls in the *seventh and eighth grades* tend to have an excess of energy. They are apt to be very restless and to demand a great variety of things to do. Experiences that are physical as well as mental in nature should be encouraged. For instance, in planning an experience for the objective just mentioned, some pupil has suggested that girls who talk too much and gossip do not have as many friends as others who do not gossip.

Suggested Experience: The Whispering Game. (Seat the pupils in a semicircle. At one end, someone whispers a statement to her nearest neighbor, who in turn whispers what she hears to the next pupil, and so on around. The last pupil repeats out loud what she finally hears.)

Girls in the *ninth and tenth grades* generally like to keep busy but prefer a more grown-up type of experience than their seventh and eighth grade sisters. They like to give parties for boys and to prepare food for various occasions. They run around collecting photographs and autographs or people's opinions, answer advertisements, and like to visit girl friends overnight. Toward the end of the tenth grade they may tend to be less active and prefer much less physical exercise than they did earlier. For the objective under consideration something of this sort might be interesting.

Suggested Experience: Have a panel discussion choosing one of the girls as chairman. Appoint other girls to get opinions of various people on gossip, such as a minister, a teacher, a boy friend, a mother, or a popular girl in school.

Girls in the *eleventh and twelfth grades* tend to be of a more serious nature than their younger classmates. They are beginning to think of marriage and to look forward to having their own homes. Boy friends are important and are critically analyzed. Experiences which include boy companionship but which offer at the same time a variety of physical and mental activities need to be encouraged. Discussions involving acceptable standards of conduct are usually interesting to this group.

Suggested Experience: Class members may volunteer illustrations of how untrue gossip may hurt some person of whom they are fond or about whom they know. In order to keep the identity of the person unknown, il-

lustrations may be drawn from books, magazines, or movies as well as from life situations previously experienced. After illustrations have been given, the class sets up some penalty for class members found gossiping.

The examples just given will serve to illustrate how experiences which center around behavior trends may be chosen for the various grade levels. If teachers make an effort to familiarize themselves with the trends which appear at different ages, helping to choose experiences will be a comparatively simple matter.

Participating in Experiences

After the pupils have accepted the goals and after they have selected the experiences which lead to those goals, it is to be expected that the pupils will participate wholeheartedly in the experiences chosen. As previously indicated, this does not imply that all the pupils will do exactly the same things but assumes that provision has already been made for individual differences in needs, interests, and abilities. If all the students have taken an active part in the class discussion and have been made to feel that they themselves have chosen the objectives and experiences, then it is not too much for the teacher to anticipate that practically all the pupils will fall in line with what has been decided upon and be ready for active participation in the experiences themselves. There are, of course, exceptions. Occasionally the teacher will find a pupil who cannot be prevailed upon to take an interest in the classroom procedure. Perhaps no amount of persuasion or tactful handling on the part of the teacher will elicit a response or bring about the desired co-operation with the group. When this situation exists, the teacher should realize that something is probably radically wrong and should make provision for a special investigation of the pupil's physical and mental condition, her home environment, and other factors which may have caused the failure to adjust in the classroom. (Such problems will be discussed further in

Chapters 8 and 9.) While the investigation is pending, the teacher should ignore the non-co-operative behavior of the pupil as much as possible.

Developing Independent Work Habits

When active participation in experiences has begun, the teacher should encourage as much independent work as possible. One of the benefits derived from the use of goal-seeking procedure is the development of independent work habits on the part of the pupil. If the students feel that the goals to be attained are their goals and that the experiences selected are based on their needs and interests and are within range of their ability to succeed, then they are more likely to feel that independent thought and action are a necessary part of achieving the goals. Of course, the teacher must be available to help pupils in case assistance is needed, but assistance should be thought of in terms of guidance or supervision rather than actual participation in the experience itself. Furthermore, assistance should be given only to those pupils who would cease working and fail if not helped or in cases where the required standards of the course would not be otherwise maintained. The idea is to encourage independent thought and action and to give help only when it is needed. What really constitutes a need will vary with each teacher and will have to be determined largely by the nature of the class itself. Some pupils need more help than others if they are not to become completely discouraged; other students need very little assistance. No set standards of procedure in this respect can be determined beforehand; all the teacher can do is to train herself to sense situations which may require help if optimum learning is to result. Even when the teacher does give assistance, she should let the pupils make their own corrections or changes in so far as possible.

Terminology

There is sometimes confusion as to just what the terms "method" and "classroom freedom" mean. In this book a "method of

teaching" implies an orderly process of using material so as to produce the desired development of the pupil. In Chapter 1 it was pointed out that three methods of teaching are now prevalent in American schools: one where the teacher plans and directs what is to be done; one where the pupils decide what is to be done; and one where the teacher and pupils co-operatively plan their goals and decide how best to attain and evaluate them.

Many teachers give a narrow interpretation to the term "method" and use it in reference to a specific technique of teaching such as group discussions, directed study, panel discussions, laboratory work, demonstrations, field trips, or lectures. Such techniques are, however, only subordinate aspects of the method and may be used in any of three methods previously described. In the conventional method the teacher chooses the technique; in the liberal method the pupil makes the decision; and in the goal-seeking method the choice is a co-operative enterprise between the teacher and the pupils.

In the goal-seeking method, techniques such as a discussion are used as part of experiences related to definite goals. For example, to attain the goal "to be able to tell stories to young children," some of the following experiences, suitable for a ninth grade class, may be carried out in various ways.

1. A *panel discussion* may be held by teachers, parents, and students on the contribution that story-telling makes to the welfare of the community.

2. Through *class discussion* and *directed study*, the class can evaluate and set up standards for suitable books and stories for children at different age levels.

3. The *lecture technique* may be used by having the kindergarten teacher talk on suitable books for young children.

4. *Field trips* may be made to different grades to observe the books which appeal to pupils.

5. A *demonstration* on how to tell stories to children may be given by the kindergarten teacher.

6. The *laboratory technique* in which the class chooses, prepares, and tells stories to children who attend play school may be employed.

Besides the confusion about "method" and "technique," there is also some misunderstanding as to what the term "classroom freedom" connotes. Some teachers who use the conventional method have difficulty in making the distinction between the freedom of choice given pupils in the liberal method and that given in the goal-seeking method. The liberal method allows unlimited freedom with little or no adult guidance, while goal-seeking procedure permits pupils to benefit by adult experience through teacher-pupil-parent co-operation.

Reviewing Progress

In order to clear up difficulties which may arise as the experiences progress, the teacher may call for a review or a summary of what has been accomplished to date. If self-evaluation devices are used, the pupils themselves will be able to check their own progress, and less time will have to be spent in having the teacher point out errors and mistakes. The next chapter will give a detailed account of evaluation from the standpoint of teacher and pupil co-operation, and will show how certain measuring devices can be successfully used in carrying out goal-seeking procedure.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Suggest some experiences which are largely mental and others which are predominately physical for the following objective: "to be able to choose clothes and accessories for all occasions."
2. Suggest a number of experiences which may be equally good for a group who are trying to become proficient in planning and packing attractive box lunches.
3. A class is studying what sort of storybooks are desirable for children of different ages. One group has obtained a standardized list of children's books for different age levels. Another group has constructed a score card by which to judge books for children. Both groups have become familiar with a number of books for children. The class is still dissatisfied, however, and feel that something is lacking in the plans which they helped make and carry out. What would you suggest to the group at this stage?

4. What experiences for different grade levels can you suggest for the goal "to be able to see my parents' side as well as my own in our disagreements"?
5. If a class desires to become acquainted with new textile materials on the market, what experiences might be best for the slow pupil who needs to develop self-confidence? What experiences for the bright pupil who needs something challenging?

5

Evaluating Achievement

Progress in learning is dependent upon knowledge of results and it follows from this that the more complete, specific, and immediate the knowledge, the better will the learning proceed.

HOLLINGWORTH [1]

Most present-day educators agree that it is necessary to ascertain how much learning has taken place on the part of the pupil. The newer methodology of teaching which has been previously described in terms of teacher-pupil-parent co-operation includes the idea of giving pupils a share in estimating their own progress. In conventional methods of teaching, this was not considered essential, since it was believed that the teacher alone should evaluate pupil achievement. However, if pupils are given the opportunity to choose definite goals and to select experiences which will lead to these goals, it seems reasonable to suppose that if adequate assistance is provided, pupils will also be able to help the teacher in measuring their own progress. Furthermore, if pupils sustain an active interest in the goals and experiences which they have helped to set up for a particular unit, they may be expected to be equally interested in knowing just how far they have progressed toward these goals, and to be stimulated by that knowledge to greater achievement.

Evaluation by pupils of their own progress, or self-evaluation, in-

[1] H. L. Hollingworth, *Educational Psychology* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1933), p. 203.

volves the same general criteria as does evaluation by the teacher. It would seem desirable, therefore, to understand these general criteria before considering self-evaluation.

Criteria for Evaluation

The following requirements would seem to be essential to good evaluation:

1. The evaluation should be in terms of definite goals.
2. The evaluation should be a part of the total learning process.
3. The type of evaluation instrument may vary with the goal.
4. Any evaluation instrument should possess certain characteristics.
5. In so far as possible, evaluation should be a continuous process so that pupils will know their initial position in reference to the goal, their position at successive stages, and their ultimate success or failure in attaining the goal.

EVALUATION BY DEFINITE GOALS

The evaluation should be in terms of definite goals. As already indicated in Chapter 3, it is very important for the teacher and pupils to state goals in definite terms. Unless both teacher and pupils perceive clearly the goals to be achieved, there is very little possibility of their choosing or constructing an evaluation instrument which has meaning. There is even less likelihood that the instrument will be anything more than a formal tool which is used because it is necessary to determine grades.

EVALUATION AS PART OF TOTAL LEARNING

The evaluation should be a part of the total learning process. Note in the following description of an eleventh grade class in home management, how the evaluation is a part of the total learning process.[2]

[2] This evaluation was developed by Eulalia Toms, of Charlotte, Michigan, and Ruth Russell, of Lansing, Michigan.

Before setting up the goal, the teacher used a poster and an exhibit as means of arousing interest. With a few suggestions from her, two girls who had finished the preceding classwork ahead of the group prepared a short skit which they gave in this introductory lesson.

ARE YOU A MAIZIE OR A MARG?

ANNOUNCER: At the corner drugstore we see Maizie and Marg enter. They go to the bar — Maizie orders a coke and Marg decides on a chocolate milk. Let us listen to their conversation.

MARG: I had the slickest lunch at the school cafeteria today. They had a grand plate lunch. Where do you eat, Maizie?

MAIZIE: Oh! I dropped in to the Hoopie and had a coke and a hot dog.

MARG: You would like it at the school cafeteria. They always serve a plate which has milk or a milk dish, a fresh vegetable or fruit, a hot dish, and some whole-grain cereal. We don't pay much for it either. The desserts are good, too.

MAIZIE: Gee, that does sound good. Maybe I'll try it tomorrow for a change.

MARG: Say, did you know that you have a run in your hose?

MAIZIE: Oh yes, I had the worst luck today. I snagged my stocking on my chair. I was just out of luck because it was my only pair.

MARG: I used to do that till we learned in homemaking class to be conscious of our stockings. We sandpapered and then refinished the legs of the old chairs in our homeroom.

MAIZIE: I don't know what will happen. I just bought some powder and lipstick, and I need stockings, and now we have to have a notebook for English, and I don't have a cent left.

MARG: Why don't you make a budget? I never had enough money for things until we learned about budgeting our money. It's easier when you have a definite plan.

MAIZIE: You're smart, I never could learn to budget. Well, I must dash. See you tomorrow. 'Bye.

MARG: Good-bye, Maizie.

It was comparatively easy for the teacher to lead the class to choose the goal: "to know how to manage my money." From there it was just a step to the suggestion that the class might like to set up a clinic where each member could secure assistance on personal money problems.

In the clinic various types of check lists were used. One type permitted pupils to see what articles each purchased regularly, occasionally, and never. Another type attempted to draw a picture of individual spending habits. Sample items used in the latter device follow:

Plan for Spending

Directions: Place a check (√) to the left of those questions to which you can answer *Yes*.

.... 1. Do I stop runs in my hose when they occur?
.... 2. Do I buy more than one pair of hose of the same kind when I buy hose?
.... 3. Do I lengthen the life of my shoes by keeping the heels built up?
.... 4. Do I repair clothes after each wearing so that they will last longer?
.... 5. Do I keep my clothes fresh and clean by laundering and dry cleaning?
.... 6. Do I wear suitable clothes for cooking and cleaning rather than my school clothes?
.... 7. Do I buy milk for lunch rather than "cokes"?
.... 8. Do I buy whole-wheat breads as well as white breads?
.... 9. Do I buy fruits, desserts, or salads rather than too much sweet stuff?
.... 10. Do I buy hot vegetables or vegetable salads as well as potatoes?
.... 11. Do I eat candy following meals rather than between meals?
.... 12. Do I take advantage of information available on cosmetics so that I can buy brands which are good yet inexpensive?
.... 13. Do I set aside a definite amount of money each week for saving?
.... 14. Do I enjoy and plan some entertainment which requires little or no expenditure of money?
.... 15. Do I contribute to the church or to some worth-while cause?
.... 16. Do I plan to have money for gifts when needed?

Check your score. The more questions to which you have answered *Yes*, the better your spending habits.

Improve your habits by seeing if you can soon answer *Yes* on the questions which you have answered with *No*.

A number of plans for spending were suggested, ranging from one which might be used by the pupil who spent $0.25 per week to one for the student who spent $5.00. (Such plans might be suggested either by the teacher or the pupils or by books.) Here are two of the plans.

Pay Day..................	
INCOME $.25	
My Weekly Plan for Spending	
Savings	$.03
School supplies	.07
Fun	.10
Candy or ice cream, etc.	.05
TOTAL	$.25

Pay Day..................	
INCOME $2.00	
My Weekly Plan for Spending	
Savings	$.20
Hose	.65
Bus fare or lunch	.50
School supplies	.10
Entertainment	.25
Cosmetics	.10
Church	.10
Candy or ice cream	.10
TOTAL	$2.00

Several sample articles which pupils could use to help them carry out a definite plan for spending were displayed in the clinic. These devices included a small felt purse sewed into compartments each of which was labeled to denote a certain expenditure, small envelopes fitted in a box with each envelope likewise labeled, and a set of tiny boxes discarded from someone's desk, each box also wearing a different label.

The final evaluation included checking to see whether or not spending habits had improved, whether some definite plan for spending had been adopted, whether some new idea was being used which made it easier to carry out a definite plan, and finally, whether the pupil was happier now in the use of money than at the beginning of the study.

Types of Evaluation Instruments

Evaluation involves the collection of any pertinent evidence which indicates the degree to which a specific goal is being attained. Evidence of a great many varieties may be utilized, the choice depending upon the goal and the ingenuity of the teacher and pupils. All of the following have an important place in evaluation: essay-type examinations; new-type tests, both those available commercially and the informal teacher-made-type; performance tests; check lists; diagnostic charts; questionnaires; interviews; diaries or "logs"; and anecdotal records. Instead of discussions of each type, practical illustrations are given below in the hope that they will encourage the homemaking teacher to make a detailed study of each kind of instrument.[3]

[3] Clara M. Brown, *Evaluation and Investigation in Home Economics* (New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1941). Brown discusses in detail in Chapter 3 the types of evaluation illustrated here.

Essay-Type Questions:

Objective: To be able to choose an A-grade lunch.

Jane has just entered junior-high-school and is puzzled by the wide variety of foods on the cafeteria counter. She would like to be able to choose an A-grade lunch and receive a blue ticket.

Write in the blanks below the guides which she should follow in choosing an A-grade lunch.

1. ....

2. ....

3. ....

4. ....

5. ....

In the cafeteria set up from food models choose an A-grade lunch for Jane. In the five spaces which follow write the menu chosen.

6. ....

7. ....

8. ....

9. ....

10. ....

Scoring: Count 1 point for each correct answer. Perfect score = 10 points.

New-Type Questions: [4]

Directions: Answer each question by writing after it the one word which supplies the information required.

1. How many tablespoons equal one cup? ....*16*....
2. From what textile fiber is burlap made? ....*Jute*....
3. What weave is flannel? ....*Twill*....

Scoring: Each correct answer counts 1 point.

Directions: The blank at the end of each sentence should be filled in with the words which complete it correctly.

1. The average amount of soda used with one cup of sour milk is ....*½ tsp.*....
2. The standard amount of phosphate baking powder required to leaven one cup of flour is ....*2 tsp.*....
3. When a garment is pieced on the crosswise threads, the piecing should be cut on threads running ....*crosswise*....

Scoring: Each question counts 1 point.

[4] A new-type test developed for a tenth grade class studying meal preparation and serving may be found in the Appendix, Exhibit C.

Directions: If the statement is correct, write C in the blank at the left. If the statement is incorrect, decide what word makes it incorrect. Draw a line through this word, and write in the blank the word which should be substituted. *Do not change the words in italics.*

without .... 1. Green beans should be cooked ~~with~~ a lid in order that more of the natural *green color* be retained.

rack .... 2. When the *pressure cooker* is used for canning, water should come to the level of the ~~jar lid~~.

increase .... 3. *Large rugs* covering most of the floor space ~~decrease~~ the apparent *size* of the room.

background .... 4. Using the *curtains* as part of the ~~decoration~~ will make the *room* seem larger.

darker .... 5. To follow the rule for the selection of *correct values* for a room, the *floor* should be ~~lighter~~ than the *walls*.

C .... 6. Rooms with *high ceilings* can be made to look lower by using drop *ceilings*.

Scoring: Count off 2 for any true statement that is not labeled C or for any question left unanswered. Count off 1 if the word making a false statement incorrect is not crossed out; and also count off 1 if the correct substitute is not written in the blank in front of the statement.

Directions: In each of the following exercises you are to select from the choices listed the one which correctly completes the statement. In the blank at the left, write the number corresponding to this choice.

2 .... 1. In making an omelet, the egg whites should be combined with the rest of the ingredients by
(1) beating (2) folding (3) stirring (4) whipping

2 .... 2. A soft custard should be cooked
(1) at the boiling point directly over the fire
(2) below the boiling point in a double boiler
(3) at the boiling point in a double boiler
(4) above the boiling point in a double boiler

Scoring: Each correct answer counts 1 point.

Directions: A number of situations are described below. Under each description are possible explanations or solutions. Check (√) each statement that seems reasonable in explaining the situation or suggesting a solution. Check (*0*) each one which does not.

Billie, aged four, is playing in the living room with his blocks when his mother calls him upstairs and says, "Billie, you have to go to bed now. Come quickly, Mother is in a hurry."

0 .... 1. Billie would probably go to bed willingly.

√ .... 2. He needs to form the habit of putting away his toys.

0 .... 3. That was the best way of telling him that it was time for bed.

√ .... 4. These suggestions may cause him to develop a feeling of insecurity.

√ .... 5. He should have been warned beforehand that it was almost time for bed.

0 .... 6. He should have been playing a more active game so that he would be tired enough to go to sleep.

"And now your other shoe," said Mother as Robert, aged eighteen months, pulled off a shoe. "And now your stocking," continued Mother; "and your other stocking," she went on as Robert undressed himself.

0 .... 7. Robert would probably have done better if his mother had not made suggestions to him.

0 .... 8. His mother should have helped him instead of telling him how.

0 .... 9. It would have been better if Robert's mother had undressed him so that she would have had time left to read him a story.

0 .... 10. Undressing himself was too much worry for such a young child just before going to bed.

√ .... 11. Robert was learning to undress himself in an orderly way.

√ .... 12. Robert would probably enjoy undressing himself.

Scoring: Each correct answer counts 1 point.

Directions: From the key list choose the part of the house which would be best cared for by each cleaning method listed. In the correct blank at the left write the number which corresponds to the part of the house chosen. No item in the key list should be used more than once.

	Suggested Ways of Cleaning	*Key List*
4	1. Wash with woolen cloth wrung out of pure soapsuds.	1. Brass fixtures.
7	2. Wash with soap and water, rinse, and dry thoroughly.	2. Iron-stained bathtub or bowl.
10	3. Use warm water to which a small amount of ammonia has been added.	3. Overstuffed and upholstered furniture.
6	4. Use a soft brush.	4. Painted or enameled woodwork.
9	5. Use a brush with a bent handle, and clean, soapy water.	5. Radiators.
3	6. Use a whisk broom or a brush attachment of a vacuum cleaner.	6. Reed or wicker furniture.
2	7. Use dilute oxalic acid.	7. Refrigerator.
5	8. Use a long, narrow, soft brush, and newspaper.	8. Rugs.
		9. Toilet bowls.
		10. Windows.

Scoring: Each item counts 1 point.

Joan has planned supper for her family of six. The menu is shown below.

Menu

Breaded pork chops
Mashed potatoes
Buttered broccoli
Hot cranberry muffins Butter
Chilled baked custard with raspberry sauce *
Coffee ** Milk

* ready prepared ** served with meal

Directions: In the blank in front of each job listed which Joan had to do in preparation of the meal, write the letter which indicates the *time* when she should do it. For example, she should fill water glasses just before people sit down at the table; so *D* is written in the blank to the left.

		Jobs to be Done	*Periods of Time*
D		Fill water glasses.	(*A*) At beginning of the time of the actual preparation of the meal.
B	1.	Put potatoes on to cook.	(*B*) Between (*A*) and (*C*).
B	2.	Bread the pork chops.	(*C*) Last ten minutes before the meal is served.
B	3.	Put chops on to cook.	(*D*) Just before people sit down at the table.
C	4.	Cook broccoli.	
A	5.	Bake custard.	
B	6.	Mix muffins and put them in the oven.	
D	7.	Place butter on table.	
B	8.	Set table.	
C	9.	Make coffee.	

Two Performance Tests.[5]

The following questions were planned for a small class in related art.

Objective: To be able to apply certain art principles in the home.

Question 1

Directions to pupils: Select a picture which you wish to mount. Then cut construction paper on which to mount your picture so that the margins are in good proportion and in proper relation to the picture.

Directions to teachers: Provide small pictures of various shapes, construction paper, and other necessary materials.

To score:

Count 2 points if top margin is correct.
Count 2 points for each side margin which is correct (4 points in all).
Count 2 points if bottom margin is correct.
Count 4 points if margins are in good proportion to picture.
Count 2 points if margins are in fair proportion to picture.
Count 0 points if margins are in poor proportion to the picture.

Perfect score: 12 points.

Question 2

Directions to teacher: Collect a group of various sized pictures, either mounted or unmounted. Using the bulletin boards and blackboards have each student arrange a grouping of pictures observing the art principles involved and the rules for hanging pictures.

Directions to pupils: These will depend upon the physical setup of the room and the pictures available for the test.

To score: Count 3 for each rule correctly carried out.

1. Space between pictures should be less than margins around the outside.
2. Pictures should be placed at or near the eye level.
3. Arrangement should be rhythmic with no odd arrangements such as stair steps.

[5] A performance test for self-evaluation of progress in meal planning, preparation, and serving, developed by Lela Adams of Moline, Illinois, may be found in the Appendix, Exhibit B.

A Check List

The following check list for keeping the clothing laboratory clean was developed for one high school and illustrates some of the desirable features for such an instrument.[6] It is particularly suited to self-evaluation.

Check List for Keeping Clothing Laboratory Clean

Rating of.............. Rating by.............. Date..........

	1	2	3	Score *
HABITS OF WORK	Practices several bad habits; works awkwardly and slowly.		Practices good habits; works easily and quickly.	1. ......
INDIVIDUAL WORK SPACE	Cluttered during work; scraps left around; equipment left out.		Orderly during work; left clean and neat; all equipment put away.	2. ......
USE OF ROOM EQUIPMENT: irons, pressing cloths, and board	Irons left connected and flat on cloth; pressing cloths and pins left on board.		Irons disconnected and placed end up on asbestos mat; cloths hung up; boards cleaned.	3 ......
SEWING MACHINES	Bobbins, thread, and scraps left; threads caught in bobbin case.		All equipment and scraps removed; no threads caught.	4. ......
SINK	Left messy.		Left clean.	5. ......
INDIVIDUAL STORAGE SPACE	Materials and equipment left crumpled; misplaced or not put away.		Everything left in an orderly manner; all put in proper place,	6. ......
WARDROBE CLOSET	Garments and hangers left on floor; door left open.		All garments hung in place; door closed.	7. ......
			Total score:	......

* A score of 3 means good habits; 2, fair habits; 1, poor habits.

[6] Developed by Theresa Schermer of Albert Lea, Minnesota, for use in a tenth grade class in clothing. The habits of work were agreed upon by the pupils, who also helped set up the standards for the check list.

Habits of Work in the Clothing Laboratory

Directions: Place a check (√) to the left of each question to which you are able to answer *Yes*. Work on the other habits until you can check each one. Recheck yourself frequently or ask some other member of the class to do so.

.... 1. Do I wash my hands and see that my nails are in proper condition before beginning work?

.... 2. Do I put away in the proper place all personal belongings not needed?

.... 3. Do I save time by bringing from home the special supplies, such as thread, buttons, and zipper, by the time they are needed?

.... 4. Do I have all the supplies needed on the table before beginning to work?

.... 5. Do I use a thimble?

.... 6. Do I use the correct size of needle and correct number and color of thread?

.... 7. Do I use the correct length of thread?

.... 8. Do I save motions by working from right to left as I sew by hand?

.... 9. Am I decreasing the number of times I have to rip?

.... 10. Am I improving my posture while I sew?

.... 11. Do I practice sitting to obtain the best light?

.... 12. Do I work with my partner in doing my share of the fitting?

.... 13. Do I baste as much of the garment as possible before fitting to avoid wasting my partner's time and mine?

.... 14. Do I get many machine stitchings ready to do at one time to prevent using the machine too often and to prevent wasting time in correcting tension and stitch length?

.... 15. Do I check stitch length and tension before stitching the garment, and if necessary do I make needed adjustments by myself?

.... 16. Do I press each seam as it is finished?

.... 17. Do I work quietly and without talking too much?

.... 18. Do I either fold my material carefully or hang my garment each day to prevent wrinkles?

.... 19. Do I collect and put away all my sewing supplies in an orderly manner?

.... 20. Do I return room supplies to their proper places?

.... 21. Do I do my share of general housekeeping duties, such as cleaning the table and floor where I work?

A Diagnostic Chart

Diagnostic charts may be particularly valuable in self-evaluation. In constructing these charts it is necessary to use a number of illustrations of whatever is to be judged as, for example, some process in clothing construction, and then, with the aid of the pupils, to arrange these in order of merit. A written description of good and poor points about each should accompany the illustration. If this is done, pupils may refer to the illustrations in analyzing their own work. Samples of jars of the same canned food may be evaluated in a similar way.

A Questionnaire Interview

The following questionnaire is illustrative of one which pupils can help make and one which may be used as an ordinary or as an interview questionnaire. Obviously this one was developed for use with former students who had had homemaking in high school.

Objective: To find out what positions are available to high-school graduates in (*name of town*) and to use this information as a basis in planning the Homemaking III work at school.

Questionnaire

Directions: Do not sign your name. Write the answer in space provided or encircle the answer which you wish to give.

.... 1. List date of graduation.

.... 2. List last date of school attendance.

.... 3. List present age.

Yes No 4. Do you live in (*name of town*)?

Yes No 5. Do you room at home?

.... 6. In which grades did you take homemaking?

7. What type of work did you do outside of your home during high school?

....

8. In what ways could the high school have helped you to prepare yourself better for the job you have or would like to have?

....

9. If you work for pay outside your home, describe the type of work.

....

.... 10. How many hours per week do you usually work?

.... 11. How much per hour do you earn? (If paid by the day or week, divide the amount by number of hours you work.)

12. What do you enjoy most about the job?

....

13. List other types of positions you have held since you left school.

....

....

.... 14. Which of these did you enjoy most?

15. Describe the type of work you would like to be doing if you had a choice.

....

....

.... 16. If you are in college, what course are you taking?

A Diary or "Log"

In some instances a diary or a "log" seems the most satisfactory way to collect evidence of progress toward the goal. For instance in an eleventh grade class in consumer buying, a pencil-and-paper test may not satisfactorily measure achievement as far as the following two goals are concerned: "to learn how to get the most for my

money when buying certain articles such as tooth pastes, lotions, cosmetics, magazines, movies, shoes, hose, ties, gloves, gifts," and "to learn to buy some of the things my family uses such as foods, small kitchen utensils, and house accessories." In this instance a diary of purchases made during a period of one month may furnish the evidence desired, particularly if some effort is made to have the contents of the diary as objective as possible. The class may agree on specific suggestions for recording, such as information regarding each purchase, the date of purchase, the name of the article, the information which the student had previous to purchasing each article, the information supplied by salespeople, the student's comments as to whether or not the articles were satisfactory, and any additional remarks the student may care to make.

In analyzing the diaries it may be necessary to evaluate each statement. For example, the student's comment as to whether or not articles were satisfactory might be classified thus:

No personal satisfaction:	I was very much dissatisfied with my slip. After the first washing, the hip measurements shrank greatly, and it faded considerably.
Satisfied:	I am satisfied with my gloves. They wash well and do not stretch.
Reserve judgment:	The clerk said the dress wouldn't shrink, but I haven't washed it yet.

Whether or not student learning had taken place could perhaps be classified somewhat as follows:

Evidence of learning:	The powder was supposed to give me glamour. I like the shade, but it doesn't give me glamour.
	I got more for my money, but the quality wasn't so good.
	The hose were too short in the foot and leg. I should have gotten them half a size larger and an inch longer.
Evidence of no learning:	I think it was a good buy because it was cheap and the clerk told me it was good.
Whether or not learning took place is not shown:	The movie lasted two hours, but I enjoyed every minute of it.
	I wore my new blouse to school today and received a great many compliments.

It is not necessary or even desirable for the teacher to do all the evaluation. Students working individually or in small groups may gain much by evaluating their own diaries particularly if such evaluation is made to seem important to them and if they understand how to classify the various diary entries.

An Anecdotal Record

A detailed account of anecdotal procedure in evaluating various personality traits is discussed at length in Chapter 6, "Growth Records." In measuring progress toward a goal, the same general anecdotal procedure should be used but would generally involve recording by the pupil or a friend of those incidents which directly pertain to the attainment of a definite goal. The keynote to success in using this type of device lies in the brevity and objectiveness of the record itself.

Student's name ......*Mary*......
Observer's name ......*Helen*......

Progress Record

Objective: To learn how to select clothes and accessories.

(*X*) indicates typical
(*0*) indicates unusual

Date and Place of Observation	*Comments*	
Sept. 13 Shopping	While I was shopping, Mary came into the store with shorts on. Apparently she wasn't on her way to a picnic either.	X
Oct. 1 Bicycling	While out riding, I passed Mary and a friend bicycling. Mary looked very neat in a seersucker dress with a divided skirt.	*0*
Nov. 2 Football game	A cold, disagreeable day, ground wet. Mary seen at game wearing a pastel sweater, high heels, no hat, coat, gloves, or hose.	X
Dec. 15 Sleighride party	A very snappy cold evening with plenty of snow. House party followed sleighride. Mary wore a fur coat, ear muffs, wool anklets, sport oxfords, and a warm sweater and skirt.	*0*
April Church (Easter Sunday)	The tailored copenhagen blue suit and harmonizing felt hat looked well chosen for the occasion. Her shoes were neat and of good style. Her navy purse was suitable for other outfits also.	*0*
May 3 Picnic	Mary wore a very becoming slack suit. Her shoes spoiled the outfit because they were old white shoes with medium heels which caused her slacks to look much too short.	X
May 26 School	Mary wore a dressy white chiffon blouse with her suit.	X
June 6 School party (informal)	Mary chose a floor length formal because she did not think her suit appropriate for the occasion. She was the only girl wearing a formal.	X

This sort of anecdotal record may extend over a period of several

months instead of being ended when the unit to which it refers is finished. In this way the device would check on whether or not the girls were maintaining the standards set up during the unit. Such a record would be handed in at the end of the school year or whenever the group wished.

Other Kinds of Evaluation

Examples of other possible means of evaluation are photographs and recordings, although the expense involved would probably limit their use. The teacher herself will be able to think of many other ways of evaluating achievement which are not suggested in this book.

CHARACTERISTICS OF ANY INSTRUMENT

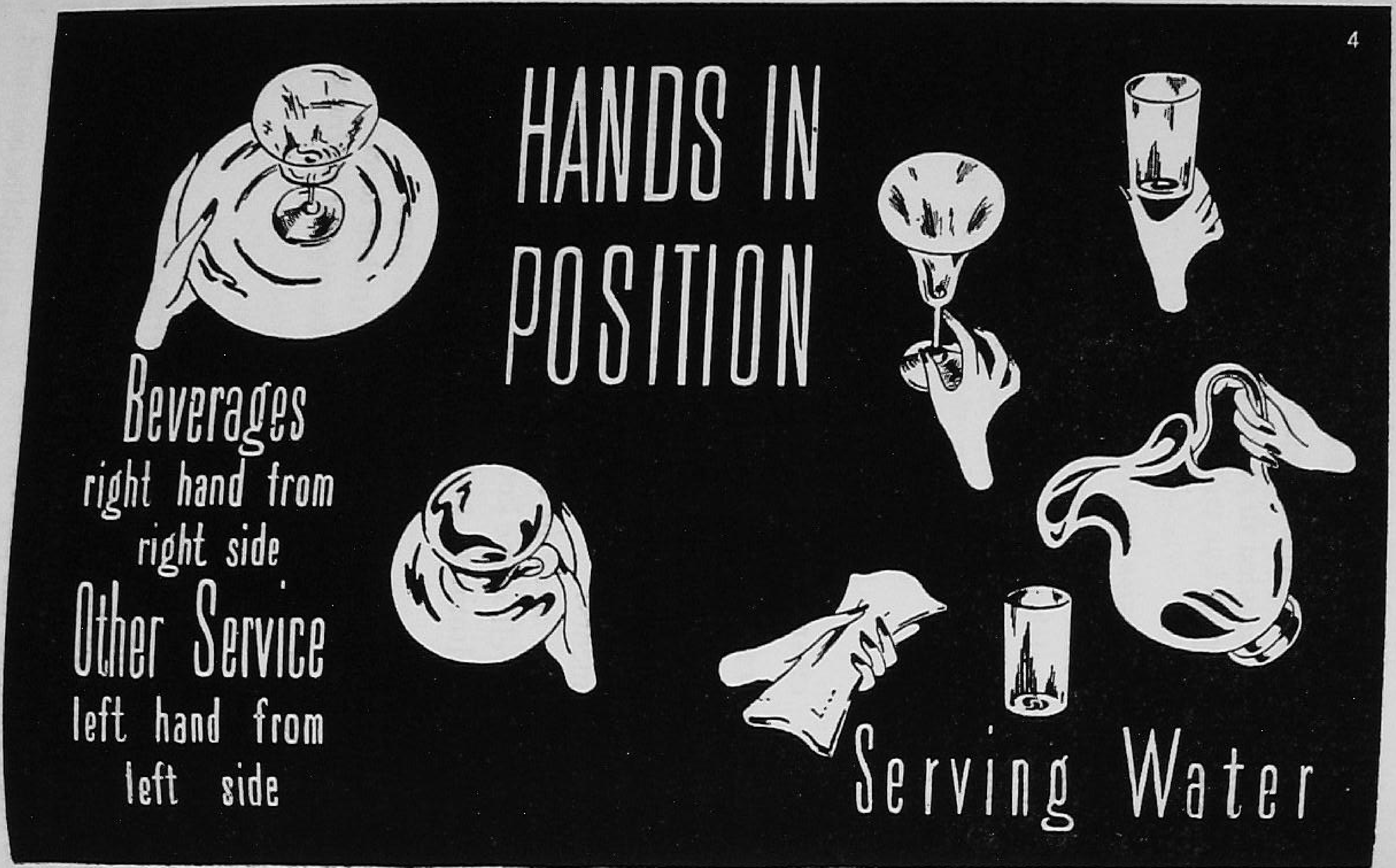
Certain characteristics of evaluation apply to the construction of any instrument, although other characteristics may be expected to vary as the kind of instrument varies.

Any instrument, no matter how informal, should meet the following requirements:

1. It should be made in terms of the goal and should test the ability to do as well as the knowledge of what to do.
2. It should eliminate personal judgment in scoring as far as possible.
3. It should give clear and adequate directions.
4. It should be adapted to the correct student level.
5. It should be as easy to score as the type of instrument will permit.

1. Measurement of the Goal

The instrument should be made in terms of the goal and should test the ability to do as well as verbal knowledge. Many teachers limit classroom measurement to paper-and-pencil tests, which all too often indicate the pupil's progress in factual knowledge only. Although the student's acquisition of facts should be measured, her abilities, skills, or habits, as the case may be, should also be evaluated.


4
HANDS IN POSITION
Beverages
right hand from
right side
Other Service
left hand from
left side
Serving Water

Take, for example, the objective "to know how to serve meals." This objective could be adequately measured by a paper-and-pencil test since the objective is concerned with knowledge of meal service only. The objective "to be able to serve meals efficiently and correctly," on the other hand, cannot be adequately measured by a paper-and-pencil test. To measure such an objective, the pupil's actual ability to serve meals would have to be tested. The self-evaluation device on page 76 is intended to measure this ability.

Check List for Table Serving[7]

Rated by.............. Date...... Rating of.............

Personal Appearance:	1	2	3	Score
Grooming	1. Untidy; hair in disorder; hands and nails dirty; make-up appears artificial.		Clean and orderly; make-up appears natural.	1....
Clothes	2. Inappropriate; soiled; in need of repair or pressing.		Appropriate; clean; in good repair; unwrinkled.	2....
Posture	3. Stooped or slouching.		Erect; walks freely and easily.	3....
Table Service	4. Makes many mistakes; awkward; tense.		Serves correctly and with ease.	4....
	5. Serves unsuitable amounts; food poorly arranged and messy.		Serves proper amounts; food attractively arranged without smearing plates.	5....
Clearing Table after Meal	6. Does not take care of returned food.		Puts returned food away in suitable containers.	6....
	7. Does not scrape and stack soiled dishes.		Scrapes, rinses, and stacks soiled dishes.	7....
	8. Puts linens away improperly.		Puts linens away properly.	8....
	9. Leaves table dirty or room in disorder.		Leaves table and room clean and in order.	9....
			Score	....

[7] Hazel M. Hatcher and Clara M. Brown, *Self-Teaching and Evaluation Devices* (Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Company, 1940), Unit 1.

General Rules for Waiting on Table

1. Temperature of serving dishes

   Dishes should be hot or chilled according to the food to be served.

2. Water glasses

   Fill glasses just before the meal is announced. During the meal a glass may be refilled without removing it from the table, but a napkin should be held in the left hand to catch any drip. If the serving space is crowded, the glass may be lifted away from the table to be refilled; in case this is done, always hold the glass near the bottom. Refill the pitcher and place it on either the serving table or the dinner table; in the latter case the glasses may be passed for refilling.

3. Order of service

   Begin with the hostess or a woman guest of honor and continue around to the right.

4. General rules for serving

   Place, pass, and remove everything from the left and with the left hand, except the beverage which is served from the right with the right hand.

   When guests are to serve themselves (as in formal service), care should be taken to hold the dish low enough and to hold it so that the handle of the serving silver is toward the person being served.

5. Removal of main course

   Remove in order indicated: (1) platter and serving silver, (2) vegetable dishes, (3) gravy bowl, (4) bread plate, (5) relish dishes, (6) individual covers, one at a time, and (7) salts and peppers and any unused silver — one small tray.

6. Crumbing of table

   Use a scraper or a napkin and a small plate when it is necessary to remove crumbs.

7. Additional silver

   Carry to the table on a doily-covered tray or on a napkin held in the left hand, any additional silver needed for the next course.

Note:

If one of the diners is waiting on the table, she should rise quietly, leaving her napkin at the left of her plate.

2. Objectivity

The instrument should eliminate personal judgment in scoring as far as possible. Then, in a given situation, different raters will tend to give similar scores, to rate products in the same way, or to interpret behavior similarly. To make judgment as objective as possible on essay-type examinations, the rater should score one question at a time. This tends to encourage continuity of thought and to eliminate a shift in standards. On check lists and rating scales, evaluation is more objective when the attention of the judges can be directed to the same points. For instance, if one part of a check list deals with habits of work in the kitchen, the judges should agree on what desirable work habits are. If all the judges are checking to see whether supplies are obtained from the place of storage in as few trips as possible, whether holders are used to handle hot dishes, and whether dish towels and cloths are cared for according to the plan agreed upon by the class, then agreement is more likely to result on whether pupils are practicing good or bad habits of work in the kitchen.

3. Clear Directions

The instrument should state directions adequately and clearly. It may be difficult to realize how important detailed directions are, especially when the form of the questions is strange to the pupils. Teachers sometimes neglect to state directions in clear, concise sentences and instead keep restating them in class in an effort to make pupils understand what is to be done. The adequacy or inadequacy of a teacher's directions is shown by whether or not, when the test is handed out, all the pupils go right to work without asking questions and give the answers expected. The directions for the sample questions on pages 61–75 may be helpful as a guide.

4. Correct Student Level

The instrument should be adapted to the correct student level. This refers both to the students' mental and to their socio-economic level. Although the same type of instrument may be satisfactory for both the junior and senior high schools, the instrument for the first needs to be simpler than that for the second. The same type

of instrument may be as suitable for a group coming from poor or average homes as for a group representing a high socio-economic status. In the case of the former group, however, questions on home furnishings should probably not be based on pictures of expensive homes and furnishings.

Whenever possible, it is desirable to vary the instruments for the different grade levels.

The following two examples illustrate evaluation of a similar goal at both the seventh and eighth grade levels.[8]

Seventh Grade

Objective: To learn how to improve habits of neatness while working in the kitchen.

Directions: In column 1 mark *X* after each question if you can answer *yes* to it, and mark *O* if you cannot. Recheck yourself often, using each column in order as numbered. See if you can answer *yes* to every question very soon.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Do I have a clean apron and holders?	....	....	....	....	....	....
2. Do I have an apron which is free from wrinkles?	....	....	....	....	....	....
3. Do I have an apron that does not need mending?	....	....	....	....	....	....
4. Do I wear my hair net so that it keeps my hair completely covered?	....	....	....	....	....	....
5. Do I wash my hands before class starts?	....	....	....	....	....	....
6. Do I have clean fingernails?	....	....	....	....	....	....
7. Do I put my books and personal belongings in the place agreed upon by the class?	....	....	....	....	....	....
8. Do I wash my hands during class before I handle food?	....	....	....	....	....	....
9. Do I wash my hands after using my handkerchief?	....	....	....	....	....	....

[8] Developed by Lela Adams, Moline, Illinois, for use in junior-high-school classes in foods. The habits of work were agreed upon as desirable ones by the pupils.

10. Do I keep my handkerchief put away in my pocket while working?	....	....	....	....	....	....
11. Do I wash my hands when they are sticky?	....	....	....	....	....	....
12. Do I wipe my hands on a towel instead of my apron even when I am in a hurry?	....	....	....	....	....	....
13. Do I keep my table clean and orderly while I am working?	....	....	....	....	....	....
14. Do I work carefully to avoid spilling?	....	....	....	....	....	....
15. Do I avoid using the cooking spoon when tasting food?	....	....	....	....	....	....
16. Do I wash dishes according to standards set up by class?	....	....	....	....	....	....
17. Do I wash the dish cloth and dish towel according to standards set up by the class?	....	....	....	....	....	....
18. Do I leave equipment in order?	....	....	....	....	....	....
19. Do I avoid combing my hair in the kitchen after I take my net off?	....	....	....	....	....	....
20. Do I put my apron away carefully?	....	....	....	....	....	....

Eighth Grade

Objective: To be able to improve my habits of neatness while I am working in the kitchen.

The seventh grade check list for improving habits of neatness while working in the kitchen might be used as the basis for planning toward further progress along this line in the eighth grade. For instance, the eighth grade girls might decide that from the seventh grade list they would like to choose four habits on which to check themselves for one month's time. As a group they might further decide some way of recording progress. The form below is suggested.

Name. . . . .

Goals

To have a clean, nicely pressed apron.
To wash my hands whenever necessary.
To keep my table clean and in order while working.
To leave the equipment clean and in order.

Directions for recording progress

Mark X on each class meeting day of the month on the calendar if you can answer *yes* to all four goals and mark *O* if you cannot.

Reverse side

NOVEMBER 194-

Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thu.	Fri.	Sat.
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	..	..	..	..

The class might then decide to have the record of the whole group marked on a large calendar in order to judge group progress as well as individual progress.

5. Ease in Scoring

The instrument should be as easy to score as its type will permit.

In evaluating progress toward the goal "to be able to recognize and make good arrangements of furniture," either essay questions or new-type questions might be used. Both kinds are illustrated below in reference to the diagram on the following page.

The essay-type question is as follows:

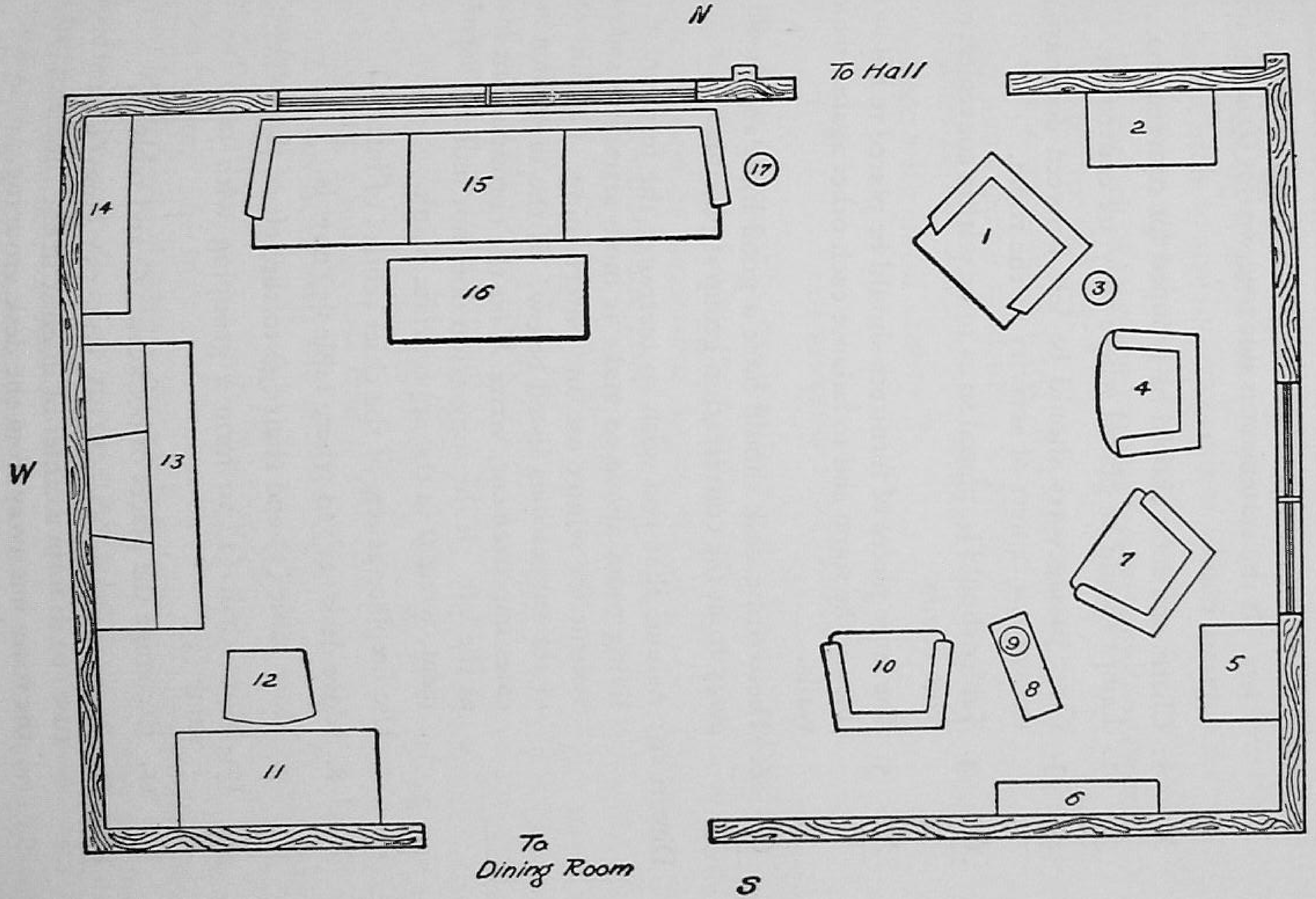
> Study the arrangement of the furniture in this room and list three things which are poor in the arrangement, giving the reason why in each case. (Use the floor plan of the room or an actual room.)
>
> 1. ....
>
> 2. ....
>
> 3. ....

Key: Five things are poor in the arrangement. Any three of these would give a perfect score.

1. The davenport is placed in front of the windows, making it difficult to open and close them and also making it impossible to place a chair so as to get best light for reading.
2. The fireplace has been disregarded as a desirable center of interest.
3. The desk has been placed so as to prevent having a chair at the left of the fireplace.
4. One chair has been placed so as to interfere with easy entrance from the hall.
5. Two of the tables are not placed so as to be within convenient reach from any chair.

Scoring: Count 3 points for each correct answer. Perfect score — 9 points.

A careful study of the two new-type questions following will probably convince the reader that the scoring in this case is much



Living room furniture

1. Easy chair
2. Table
3. Lamp
4. Easy chair
5. Table
6. Book-case
7. Easy chair
8. Table
9. Lamp
10. Easy chair
11. Desk
12. Desk chair
13. Fire-place
14. Book-case
15. Sofa
16. Coffee table
17. Lamp

simpler than in the case of the essay-type and that essentially the same things are tested.

Directions: Consider each of the following statements, which describe an attractive and conveniently arranged living room. If the statement is true of the living room pictured above, write (*X*) in the appropriate blank at the left. If the statement is not true, write (*0*) in the appropriate blank.

X 1. Chairs and sofas should be grouped for conversation.

X 2. Lamps should be placed where they are convenient.

0 3. Clear passageways should be left between doorways and the various centers of activity in the room.

0 4. Tables should be placed so as to be within convenient reach from chairs.

X 5. The large pieces of furniture should be placed to follow the lines of the room and to balance each other against the four walls.

0 6. The writing desk should have a good light and should be away from the conversation group if possible.

Directions: Assume that you wish to rearrange the furniture in the living room above to make it more attractive and convenient for winter use and entertaining. Consider each of the suggestions listed below. If the suggestion indicates improvement, write X on the corresponding blank at the left. If the suggestion does not indicate improvement, write *0* in the appropriate blank.

X 7. Use fireplace as one of the chief centers of interest.

X 8. Move desk (11) to where table (5) now is.

X 9. Move table (5) and chair (4) to the left of the fireplace.

X 10. Move chair (1) to form a grouping with table (2) and lamp (3).

0 11. Exchange the places of bookcase (6) and table (2).

X 12. Regroup chairs (7) and (10), table (8), lamp (9), and bookcase (6) to form a center of interest in the southeast part of the room but away from the desk grouping.

CHARACTERISTICS OF NEW-TYPE TESTS

In addition to the characteristics previously described and illustrated as applicable to any type of evaluation, Brown discusses in detail certain additional characteristics which are needed in all new-type tests: (1) it should be long enough to furnish good sampling; (2) it should have questions arranged in order of difficulty; (3) it should not include any interdependent items; (4) it should have key lists arranged in alphabetical or logical order; (5) it should include a suitable variety of new-type questions planned in relation to the time required for the test.[9]

If a test is well constructed, it should differentiate the superior, average, and inferior students. Consequently, after giving a test, the teacher should analyze the scores to be sure that they vary in accordance with pupil ability.[10]

CONTINUOUS EVALUATION

In so far as possible, evaluation should be a continuous process enabling pupils to know their initial position as regards the goal, their position at successive stages, and their ultimate success or failure in attaining the goal. In other words, pupils should have opportunity to find out how far they are from the goal in the beginning, to check progress as they work, and finally to see how close they have come to achieving the goal. For example, if Mary wants to become the kind of friend she would like to have, she will need to analyze what she would expect in an ideal friend and how far short she is of this picture. Then as she works toward her goal of becoming a more ideal friend, she will need to collect evidence which shows how well she is succeeding. In this case there may not need to be any final evaluation, since Mary may realize that she probably will never be a truly ideal friend but merely a better friend than before. She may even recognize the fact that this particular goal is one toward which she needs to strive indefinitely. On the

[9] Clara M. Brown, *Evaluation and Investigation in Home Economics* (New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1941), Chaps. 6 and 7. In Chap. 8 Brown discusses in detail the construction and use of the various evaluation devices illustrated on pp. 61–75 as well as other types.

[10] *Ibid.*, Chap. 9.

other hand, evaluation may be quite objective. The same instrument may be used throughout with the possible exception of a pencil-and-paper test. For example, if the group has agreed on standards to work toward in care of the kitchen, then the same check list should probably be used in the final as well as in the initial scoring. Where this is done it is comparatively easy for pupils to judge their own progress.

Self-Evaluation

From the standpoint of the teacher all the criteria previously mentioned are important in self-evaluation. From the pupils' point of view, however, provided that the goals are meaningful to them and that they have a clear mental picture of what they are working toward, only the following questions in evaluation will be of primary concern:

> Will this instrument really indicate whether or not I am making progress toward what I want, or is it just something the teacher wants for her record?
>
> If I use this instrument, can I tell how far I am from the goal at the beginning, how far at intervals as I work, and then finally to what extent I have achieved what I started out to do?

These questions have already been mentioned in relation to the general criteria for evaluation on pages 56 and 75.

A teacher may believe so wholeheartedly in the value of self-evaluation that she is eager for her students to have a great many individual self-evaluation devices, whose cost may be prohibitive whether they are produced commercially or by paid workers within the school. While it is preferable in many instances for students to use commercial or individually-made self-evaluation devices, it is not essential that these be available for every student nor that they be produced outside the classroom. Some teachers encourage group work and provide materials for a group of three or four students instead of for each pupil. On the other hand, a particular device which has been developed by the teacher and the class may be produced in the classroom as needed. A simple check list or "log" are

examples of devices easily reproduced by pupils. The main point inherent in the goal-seeking method is that all pupils see a reason for using the device. They must realize that it is a way of ascertaining how far they have progressed toward their goals.

Teachers who have encouraged pupils to evaluate their own progress in the classroom are generally somewhat disturbed in the beginning because pupils are apt to rate themselves too high in their early attempts at evaluation. It needs to be recognized that pupils develop ability to evaluate in the same way that they develop other abilities. They must learn to look at themselves objectively. The teacher may help by encouraging pupils to compare their self-ratings with the self-ratings of other individuals.

In self-evaluation as well as in other types of evaluation the teacher should consider the problem of rivalry. Practically all students have an urge to do something better than another student. It is a natural tendency to want to make a place for oneself and to secure a certain status. The spirit of rivalry, however, may become dangerous if it is allowed to develop too far among individuals, and it may bring about bitter feelings if it is not controlled. It is a simple matter, though, for the teacher to redirect this feeling of rivalry and to encourage students to compete with themselves instead of with someone else. The teacher should get pupils interested in their own improvement and make them feel that individual progress and growth can be a game.

Applying the Five Criteria of Evaluation

In the examples which follow it will be seen that each of the five criteria of evaluation is employed. It may be helpful to check each illustration against the five criteria listed on page 56.

1. *Objective:* To know how to act wherever I am and to be able to talk to people I meet.

The class has decided to limit the objective to the following: (*a*) how to make introductions; (*b*) how to carry on conversation; (*c*) how to join and leave a group; (*d*) how to act in the presence of older people.

The pupils then agree on an acceptable standard of conduct and

keep this in mind as they work toward the goal. This standard may be based on a certain individual who is known to the group or about whom the group has read, or it may be wholly imaginary. The only requirement is that each person in the group have some acceptable mental image. The teacher may also use some sort of device such as the following to help students form the desired image. (The excerpt from the test given below may form the basis for discussion in the beginning but should not be counted toward the grade.)

Directions: In relation to the situation, study the conduct of each person whose name is underlined. If the conduct is satisfactory, write *S* on the line to the left. If the conduct is unsatisfactory, write *U*. Study the four descriptions of alternate behavior just below and mark with *X* the items which indicate improvement; mark with *O* those which do not.

Situation: Two homemaking classes were holding open house at their new cottage following a P. T. A. meeting.

S 1. Jean introduced one of her father's friends to her teacher by saying, "Miss Smith, may I present Mr. Black?"
Jean might have said:

X 2. "Miss Smith, this is Mr. Black, a friend of my father's. Mr. Black, Miss Smith is my homemaking teacher."

O 3. "Mr. Black, please meet Miss Smith."

X 4. "Miss Smith, may I introduce my father's friend, Mr. Black?"

O 5. "Mr. Black, I should like for you to know Miss Smith. Miss Smith, this is Mr. Black."

After the standard has been agreed upon, each person then chooses a partner. Together they compare themselves with the model and list their own weaknesses.

The class then decides to have each person write brief descriptions of the partner's conduct as it applies to the goal by observation at home, at school, and in the community. Each person also writes comments about herself.

For example, Helen and Joan decide that Joan carries on a con-

versation as well as their model and also knows how to join and leave a group of young people. Joan, however, is ill at ease in the presence of older people and does not know how to make introductions correctly. As Helen and Joan are working toward their goal, they record six or eight anecdotes, two of which are as follows:

HELEN: Joan, Mary and I were walking down town after school when we met a friend of Joan's mother whom neither Mary nor I had met previously. Joan said, "Mrs. White, this is Mary Thomas and Helen Bonde, school friends." To Mary and Helen she added, "Mrs. White is one of mother's best friends."

JOAN: We had family guests for dinner Wednesday evening. Mother seated me to the right of Mr. Bloom, who works with father. Mother, of course, was at his left and carried on most of the conversation so that my silence was not so noticeable. I couldn't think of a single thing to say.

After analyzing all the anecdotes, Helen and Joan decide that Joan now knows how to introduce people satisfactorily but needs to continue learning how to be more at ease in the presence of older people. They ask the class for suggestions and then make plans for further checking.

The final evaluation is tied up with one of the class experiences planned for an objective on entertaining. The class plans an entertainment for guests with whom they are not all well acquainted in order to check further accomplishment with respect to their ability to know how to act in certain specified situations.

2. *Objective:* To improve my personal appearance.

In setting up the goal the class decides on the following sub-goals:

to improve posture
to be sure that my body is clean
to improve the appearance of my face and complexion
to be certain that my teeth are in as good condition as I can make them
to have better-looking hair
to improve the appearance of my hands if I find they need to be improved
to take better care of my clothes
to have good manners on all occasions

Early in the unit the class has a "Good Point Parade." Each pupil in turn walks in front of the others, and the audience writes down all her good points. (A list of requirements for pleasing appearance may be set up before the parade commences.) After each girl has paraded, she receives the lists from the others and in most cases will find that some of the requirements for attractive appearance do not apppear on her lists. In trying to find out the reasons, the class may decide to set up a personal improvement clinic. The leader for each part of the clinic should be a person who rates high in that particular area. For example, the pupil who works in the part of the clinic devoted to improving manners should have excellent manners. As other pupils reach the standards set up by the class, they may become part of the clinic and help others in the class to improve. Self-teaching and self-evaluation devices for each area should be available in the clinic.

The device which follows was developed for the sub-goal "to improve the appearance of my face and complexion." [11]

[11] Hazel M. Hatcher, *Suggestions for Teaching the Personal Appearance Unit in Home Economics* (Bulletin No. 275; Lansing, Michigan: The State Board of Control for Vocational Education, 1941), pp. 9–10. The material in this bulletin is not copyrighted and may be reproduced in whatever form seems desirable.

Are You Satisfied with the Appearance of Your Face and Complexion? Should You Be?

The following check list should give you a good picture of the appearance of your face and complexion. A score of 3 on point 1 indicates a clean face, a score of 1 indicates a dirty face, and a score of 2 indicates a face that is fair in this respect.

Rated by............... Date...... Rating of...............

		1	2	3	Score
CONDITION	1.	Dirty		Clean	1....
	2.	Rash; pimples		Clear	2....
	3.	Enlarged pores; blackheads		Fine pores; no blackheads	3....
	4.	Dry or excessively oily		Normal oil secretion	4....
	5.	Chapped or rough skin		Soft and smooth skin	5....
	6.	Chapped or rough lips		Soft and smooth lips	6....
NATURAL	7.	Sallow		Healthy color	7....
COLOR	8.	Dark circles under eyes		Free from dark circles under eyes	8....

Total Score .....

Read What One High-School Girl Did After She Rated Herself

Mary was not certain that she had given herself the correct score. She, therefore, asked three people in whom she had confidence to rate her also. After studying all the scores, Mary decided that she needed to improve on points 3, 7, and 8. She read some references from the library which she thought might afford suggestions and in addition consulted several persons, including the school nurse. Then Mary *wrote out and carried out* a plan which she believed would help her improve the appearance of her face and complexion.

Mary's Plan

1. Add the following to my program:

   Daily: Check the ventilation of my room before going to bed at night.
   Allow nine hours out of twenty-four for sleep.
   Plan for thirty additional minutes of outdoor exercise.

   Twice a Week: Apply cloths wrung out of hot water to steam the face and to open the pores as much as possible. Then massage the face with cold cream. Wash gently with soap and water. Rinse with clear, cold water to contract the enlarged pores.

2. Record each omission on a calendar pad which provides space for explanation.
3. Check improvement by rating myself each Saturday on points 3, 7, and 8 above.

What Is Your Plan?

Write it out and clip it to this sheet for future reference.

For Those Who Use Make-up

To discover how successfully you use make-up, rate yourself on the check list. A score of 3 on point 1 indicates that the color of your make-up blends with natural skin tones, a score of 1 indicates that it does not blend, and a score of 2 indicates that it blends fairly well.

Rated by............... Date..... Rating of...............

		1	2	3	Score
CHOICE	1.	Color does not blend with natural skin tones		Color blends with natural skin tones	1....
USE	2.	Too much used; "painted" effect		Just enough used to create pleasing natural effect	2....
	3.	Carelessly applied; forms a definite line		Carefully applied; shades into natural skin tones	3....
	4.	Unattractive features emphasized; attractive features concealed		Attractive features emphasized; unattractive features concealed	4....
	5.	Applied in public		Applied in private	5....
	6.	Applied with borrowed articles		Applied with own articles	6....
				Total Score	.....

If you are not certain of your score, perhaps you should ask several other persons to rate you and then compare the results. We do not always see ourselves as others see us.

Read How One High-School Girl Improved Her Rating

Mary rated low on points 1 and 4. Through reading and questioning others, she gained ideas for activities which she believed would help her improve on the two points. Her plan was as follows:

Points Needing Improvement	*Activities Chosen*
1	Watch a class demonstration on correct choice of make-up for certain skin tones. Use what I have learned in selecting colors of powder, rouge, and lipstick which suit my skin tone.

4 Watch a class demonstration of good and poor methods of applying make-up on several girls each with a different problem; for example, on one girl who has a plump face, on another who has high cheek bones.

Ask the class to help me compile general suggestions for applying make-up correctly, such as "rouge placed crosswise broadens the face." Try putting on cosmetics according to some of these suggestions. Study the effects, and then ask several friends to comment.

Now Are You Ready to Make Your Own Plan? Remember That It May Be Very Different from Mary's Plan.

Write it out and clip it to this sheet for future reference.

3. *Objective:* To be able to arrange one's own room so that it can be used for study, entertaining a friend, and carrying on a hobby as well as for sleeping.

The first step is to be sure that each member of the class has a mental picture of an inexpensively furnished room in which provision is made for study, entertaining a friend, carrying on a hobby, and sleeping. The following qualifications are set up by the class: (*a*) make bed as inconspicuous as possible; (*b*) allow for sufficient work space; (*c*) arrange work space in relation to the lighting; (*d*) provide decorative features suitable to the room.

Each girl then makes a list of ways in which her own room does not meet these specifications. As she improves her room, she lists each change that is made. For example, her list may include the following improvements: (1) "I provided space for books by using fruit boxes which had been refinished"; (2) "I replaced worn curtains by simple ones which gave more light"; (3) "I shifted my bed and study table to provide better ventilation for sleeping and better light for studying"; (4) "I made an attractive desk set for the study table"; (5) "I arranged an attractive unit which included a book, a plant, and a lamp."

The final evaluation may be in the form of an essay based on a description of changes listed during the unit and may be followed by a class visit to one or two rooms where the most improvement has been made.

4. *Objective:* To learn to use the sewing machine independently.

A certain ninth grade class knows how to thread and operate the machine fairly well but requires assistance from the teacher too frequently. As the result of an exhibit contrasting poor and excellent machine-stitching and showing some of the causes of poor stitching, the class has set up the objective given above.

To have the class discover how much each girl knows about the objective, the teacher gives two pretests — one to evaluate ability to use the machine, the other to determine knowledge of machine technique. The performance test may include in part: (1) choosing thread suitable for a particular piece of material; (2) selecting a machine needle suitable for thread; (3) winding and replacing the bobbin; (4) threading the needle; (5) regulating the tension; (6) regulating length of stitch; and (7) stitching.

The written test may include approximately sixty items, some samples of which follow: [12]

Joan believes she could use the machine more expertly and independently if she understood what causes these machine troubles:

(*A*) Looping on upper side of material	(*E*) Skipping stitches
(*B*) Looping on under side of material	(*F*) Improper feeding of machine
(*C*) Breaking of upper thread	(*G*) Heavy working of machine
(*D*) Breaking of the needle	(*H*) Puckering of seams

Directions: From the list of machine troubles above select those that may result from each of the following causes. In the space or spaces to the left of each line write the letter indicating your choice. The number of spaces indicates the number of correct choices.

Causes of Machine Trouble

C *H*	1, 2.	Upper tension too tight
C *E*	3, 4.	Needle too small for the thread used
B	5.	Upper tension too loose
A	6.	Improper threading of bobbin case
C *E* *F*	7, 8, 9.	Bent needle
C *E*	10, 11.	Blunt needle
D	12.	Bobbin placed wrongly in the bobbin case
D	13.	Material pulled during the sewing
A	14.	Thread woven unevenly on bobbin
C	15.	Thread improperly threaded
E	16.	Needle incorrectly set
D *E*	17, 18.	Needle too long for the machine
E	19.	Needle too short for the machine
G	20.	Belt too tight
G	21.	Machine gummed
G	22.	Bobbin winder down

Perfect score: 22

[12] Part of a self-evaluation device developed by Mamie Stearns, Upper Sandusky, Ohio, for use with senior-high-school students.

Students check their own progress by reference to a diagnostic chart which portrays stitching ranging from very poor to excellent. Students who meet the satisfactory standards at the beginning may with the aid of the teacher set up exhibits to help other students diagnose their difficulties. For example, a sample which shows the breaking of a thread may be labeled and the possible causes explained by supplementary exhibit material such as (1) a bent needle; (2) a picture from the machine book showing how to set a needle correctly; (3) thread too coarse for the size of the needle; (4) a chart showing how to regulate the tension and a sample showing tension which is too tight.

Students check final achievement by means of a performance test and a written examination, both similar to the ones used as pretests.

5. *Objective:* To be able to prepare several different kinds of foods.

The teacher gives the class a pretest in order to determine, as far as possible, each girl's knowledge of food preparation. The student sees her own position in relation to the group on the pretest, but scores do not count toward the final grade. The following illustrate kinds of questions which may be used.

Directions: Put an X before each item which you think is correct and *0* before each one which is not.

The following practices would be recommended:

0 1. After prunes have been soaked, discard the water, add fresh water, and cook slowly until tender.

X 2. Use one half as much cornstarch to thicken pudding as you would flour.

0 3. Use equal amounts of flour as a thickening agent for cream of potato soup and cream of tomato soup.

X 4. Boil potatoes in a small amount of water and use the water if possible.

0 5. Cut fat very finely when making pie crust.

0 6. Use the same amount of bread flour as of cake flour in baking.

Directions: In each blank at the left of each kind of meat write the letter of the item in the key list which corresponds to the correct method of preparation.

Kind of Meat	*Key List*
C 7. Round steak	(*A*) Cook in dry heat
C 8. Rump roast	(*B*) Cook in moist heat
A 9. Lamb chops	(*C*) Cook in either of the above ways depending on particular piece of meat
C 10. Chuck roast	
A 11. Pork loin	
B 12. Soup bone	
B 13. Flank steak	
A 14. Rib roast	

As the unit progresses, students check their own achievement by means of food score cards,[13] a sample of which is given.

Meat Balls

	1	2	3	Score
APPEARANCE	1. Shrunken		Plump	1. ....
	2. Uneven size		Uniform size	2. ....
COLOR	3. Pale or burned		Well-browned	3. ....
MOISTURE CONTENT	4. Dry		Juicy	4. ....
TEXTURE	5. Crumbly		Easily cut with fork	5. ....
LIGHTNESS	6. Very compact		Fairly compact	6. ....
TASTE AND FLAVOR	7. Flat or too highly seasoned		Well-seasoned	7. ....
	8. Raw, tasteless, burned, or greasy		Flavor developed; not greasy	8. ....

The final examination includes a paper-and-pencil test similar to the pretest and in addition a performance test designed to measure the following abilities: (1) to measure accurately; (2) to follow a recipe; (3) to know how to make simple adaptations in recipes; (4) to thicken milk to the desired consistency without having the product scorch, curdle, or get lumpy; (5) to know when egg dishes and products thickened by starch or flour are sufficiently cooked; (6) to keep the kitchen clean when working.

The day before the performance test is to be given, the class and the teacher make a list of products which could be used in the school cafeteria and which would check on the above abilities at the same time. The list may include cornstarch puddings (chocolate, pineapple, or caramel); cream-pie fillings (chocolate, butterscotch, cocoanut, walnut, and pineapple); soft custard; and cream sauce for vegetables. At this time the teacher suggests that the girls may use their recipe files and all reference materials in the laboratory for the final performance test the next day.

[13] Clara M. Brown, *Food Score Cards* (Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1940).

After the products have been prepared, they are rated on food score cards describing satisfactory and unsatisfactory standards of consistency, texture (appearance in case of soft custard), taste, and flavor. Pupils are rated also on a check list for keeping the kitchen clean.[14]

General Remarks About Evaluation

The discussion in this chapter does not, of course, cover all that might be said concerning evaluation. Every homemaking teacher who wants to do a superior piece of work along this line will find it necessary to read widely on the subject and then to plan carefully both alone and again with students. It must be remembered, however, that evaluation should include not only the amount of academic progress which pupils make, but also their development as a whole. Teachers and pupils will need to put together the results of various kinds of evaluation in order to get even a partial picture of the total growth of a student. The following chapter offers suggestions along this line.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Plan for evaluating progress toward one of the following goals or toward some other goal in which you are interested.
   To be able to care for my hair and to arrange it becomingly.
   To know how to prepare unusual foods.
   To be able to choose and tell stories to children which they will enjoy.
   To learn how to store out-of-season clothes.
   To be able to get along better with my brothers, sisters, and friends.

   Check your ideas by the five criteria for evaluation. Make whatever revisions seem desirable. If possible, try out your suggestions and make further revision in plans.
2. If some evaluation instruments which have previously been used in a homemaking class are available, analyze them in the light of the discussion in this chapter.
3. Consider how you would use check lists to help pupils learn to evaluate their own progress.

[14] Hazel M. Hatcher and Clara M. Brown, *Self-Teaching and Self-Evaluation Devices* (Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Company, 1940).

6

Growth Records

Still, as the spiral grew,
He left the past year's
dwelling for the new. . .
Stretched in his last-found home,
and knew the old no more.
OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

In chapter 5 evaluation has been discussed from the standpoint of helping students see their own progress in terms of the goals they have helped to set up. This type of evaluation is especially effective in facilitating pupil progress and in developing growth through the student's initiative. It must be realized, however, that initiative is only one factor which influences development. A certain amount of progress, such as the growth of intelligence, comes about as the result of the interaction between environmental forces and hereditary influences, both of which contribute to the nature and extent of all growth. Although environment and inheritance have not been directly commented upon in the preceding chapter, nevertheless they are fundamental aspects which were taken into consideration in determining the most effective measures toward adequate pupil growth. The present chapter is primarily concerned with the ways and means of evaluating pupil development in terms of objective records not only for pupil and parent use but for the staff and school administration in guiding pupil progress.

Records Available to Pupils and Parents

Records of pupil progress in the form of report cards sent home have long been a part of most school programs with much of the

evaluation in terms of academic achievement. This system of appraisal is being seriously questioned by most modern educators who are attempting to work out more adequate ways of recording pupil development. However, until more satisfactory measures have been tried and found acceptable, the question of "marking" will continue to be a real problem to the average teacher.

POINTS OF VIEW ABOUT MARKS

Points of view as to the value of marks range all the way from the belief that marks should not be given to the belief that marks are essential. In both instances marks are thought of in terms of status, not progress. Those who are convinced that marks should not be given argue that they are an unreliable measure of what the pupil has learned, that they do not indicate progress in any way, and that they fail to picture all the aspects of pupil development. These people also argue, and rightly, that many of the maladjustment problems of pupils can be traced back to school marks and that they are, therefore, injurious to the emotional health of the pupils. Those who believe marks are essential state that at the present time, marks represent the best single criterion for predicting success, are often used by employers who are considering prospective candidates for positions, and are demanded by parents. It would be possible to devote much space to the pros and cons of marking, but the fact remains that in the vast majority of present-day schools marks must be assigned because the administrative setup requires it.

THE LONG-TERM PROBLEM

Present-day trends in evaluation aim at presenting a total picture of the pupil which is based on educational objectives and is measured in terms of pupil reactions toward these objectives. Obviously this procedure is not as simple as the conventional method of merely estimating academic achievement at periodic intervals, but calls for a long-view program involving various types of evaluating devices. Already many schools have cumulative or developmental records which include reports on school adjustment, personality traits,

attitudes toward school traditions, participation in school affairs, and other items which are believed to be necessary for evaluating all-around pupil development. Many of these records, of course, are far from perfect, often include much irrelevant material, and frequently indicate teachers' attitudes instead of presenting a true picture of a pupil's personality. However, such records are indicative of a trend in the right direction. The homemaking teacher, in addition to co-operating with the administration for the improvement of the cumulative type of record, has an important part to play in teaching parents the value of measuring as many aspects of pupil development as is possible other than mere academic achievement. Through the close contacts she has made with parents in home visits and in teaching adult classes, the teacher may exert a powerful influence toward helping parents see the necessity for a record which gives a full picture of the pupil, and she may even take the lead in demanding this type.

THE IMMEDIATE PROBLEM

Whatever may be the ideal in regard to marking, the fact remains that in the majority of our present-day schools, marks which indicate status must be assigned at regular intervals. The immediate problem confronting the teacher really becomes one of satisfying the school requirements and at the same time meeting the needs of the pupil in so far as possible with the restrictions imposed. In order to give marks which are helpful to pupils rather than harmful, the following suggestions should be considered:

1. Use self-evaluation as much as possible so that the records will have meaning.
2. Have pupils and parents whenever possible participate in planning what will contribute toward the mark.
3. Keep records as objective as possible.
4. Have pupil's own record available to her on request.
5. Give parents guidance along with marks.

Self-Evaluation in Marking

Unless pupils have a part in evaluating their own progress, marks are likely to be regarded as something of a mystery and thus to as-

sume exaggerated importance just as do other mysterious things. Research has already shown that whenever self-checking devices have been used, pupils display maximum interest. The question of whether the teacher uses the scores obtained by the pupils in self-evaluation or her own scores of their work is of little significance. In many cases pupils would prefer that the teacher's score be used because of their confidence in the teacher. The real problem is in letting pupils understand the basis of certain marks.

Pupil Participation in Marking

There is generally a much better feeling toward marks when pupils help the teacher decide at the beginning of a problem just what measures will contribute toward the mark and how much each will count. If pupils have helped in planning their own goals, have assisted in choosing the experiences which are to be provided, and have participated in checking progress toward the goals, they are already well prepared to help decide about determining marks. For instance, a class in meal preparation and serving might decide how much the various check list ratings and other measures, including pencil-and-paper tests, will count toward the final grade. Or the teacher and pupils might decide that scores on all the check lists with the exception of a certain one will count two thirds of the grade and that other measures including class contributions and written tests will comprise the other third. The problem of what should count toward the grade is frequently a difficult one even for teachers. It is probably easier to think in terms of what should count directly and indirectly even though not specifically considered in determining marks. For instance, in evaluating individuals, ratings on work habits, management ability, class contributions, and written work should probably count directly. Such things as attendance, co-operation, industry, initiative, and regard for the teacher are likely to count indirectly even though they should probably not be considered as an integral part of the grade representing status.

Objectivity of Records

One of the chief criticisms of the conventional method of marking

is that the symbols used do not convey enough meaning. Just to designate a unit as "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory" means little and offers no basis for judging what criteria were used to determine evaluation. The trend at the present time is to measure achievement in terms of educational goals and to permit teachers to supplement the single mark which represents status, only, with records of progress toward those goals. The more objective these records are, the more meaningful will they be to the teacher, the pupils, and the parents. As our knowledge of evaluating progress of so-called intangibles increases, our ability to produce sound and objective records will undoubtedly increase also. It must be remembered, however, that records are never an end in themselves and that time should not be spent in recording information which serves no useful purpose.

Availability of Records to Pupils

Self-evaluation implies that pupils be given a chance to know their own achievement. In many instances there may be a discrepancy between the teacher's ratings and those of the pupils, due to the fact that pupils must learn to rate just as they learn to do other things. Whenever such a discrepancy does exist, pupils should know about it, and opportunity should be provided for individual conferences in which ratings may be adjusted to the satisfaction of both teacher and pupil. Some teachers are afraid that pupils will be unduly discouraged when they recognize that they are not doing well or will tend to become overconfident if made aware of success. This condition need not necessarily exist if teachers are careful, in the one case, to help the poor pupils see what they have done successfully, as well as what they are unable to do; or, in the other case, to help the bright pupils see where they have failed to succeed even though on the whole they have done well. In general, most educators believe that pupils profit from a realization of their abilities and limitations if the realization is accompanied by advice which will help them strive toward a better development.

Parent Guidance and Marks

Much work needs to be done in interpreting pupil development to

parents who are inclined to overemphasize the value of a high mark. With a fixed curriculum teachers are requested to give marks which represent a reasonable distribution of better grades, that is, some low marks as well as high and average ones. Sometimes a teacher may be disturbed by the effect of low marks on pupils who work hard but simply do not have the mental capacity to do better work and who are poor when compared with the group. It is even more difficult for parents to reconcile themselves to this situation. Perhaps the matter cannot be remedied until the total picture of the pupil is taken into consideration. The record in the grade book should be particularly helpful in bridging the gap needed for guidance. For instance, when Marilyn Hart's mother wants to know how to help Marilyn improve her work in homemaking or when she complains about Marilyn's grade, a teacher who has worked co-operatively with the pupils in recording individual ratings and achievement on the various goals toward which the class has been working should be able to point out that Marilyn does as well as anyone in the group when it comes to class contributions and written work but that she is near the bottom of the group when it comes to actual meal preparation. Perhaps a discussion of the situation by the mother, the teacher, and Marilyn would show where the difficulty lies. Marilyn may have been receiving high grades in other classes because she wrote and talked well, but in homemaking she had made little effort to *do* as well as to *know*. Possibly Marilyn's mother took pride in doing all the work at home so that Marilyn would have more time to read and study. Whatever the reason, plans can be made for Marilyn to have an opportunity to improve her weak points.

As teachers gain experience in evaluating individual differences and are permitted a flexible program to make allowances for these differences, a new attitude toward individual achievement is bound to result. Jane's parents may know that her ability to achieve academically in terms of class standards is limited, but if they can be made to realize that Jane possesses valuable social ability and that this trait is just as vital to a successful adjustment to life as mental ability, marks may take on a new meaning.

Ideal reports sent to parents would include ratings of the pupil as

a whole with an evaluation of the pupil's strengths and difficulties and the teachers' recommendations. Some schools already make a practice of sending home informal personal notes written by the teachers or by the pupils themselves. These letters may stress good work or point out needed improvement. They are sent as often as it seems advisable — when pupils are having difficulty, when they are showing marked improvement, or when parents need to know the nature and character of a pupil's development. This procedure appears to be a step in the right direction and has been well received by parents with whom it has been tried.

SUGGESTED PROGRESS RECORD

The form on page 110 is an example of one which might be worked out co-operatively with junior-high-school pupils to supplement the homemaking grade.[1] The column at the extreme left shows the various goals toward which the class has been working during a six-week period. The comments by the pupil, the teacher, and the parent are added at intervals whenever progress has been noted. If some parent fails to co-operate, the pupil should not be allowed to feel discouraged but should be commended by the teacher as much as seems desirable in view of her accomplishment.

Other devices which supplement the report card may be used at different levels depending upon the ingenuity of the teacher, the pupils, and even the parents, who are often willing to contribute ideas.

Guidance Records Primarily for the Staff

EVALUATING MENTAL ABILITY

In many schools a pupil's record includes, not only reports of scholastic achievement, but also mental test scores and various measures of personality. Since these will be available to the homemaking teacher, she should have sufficient knowledge about them to use them wisely.

[1] Developed by Helen Hartman, student, Michigan State College, summer, 1942.

Progress Record in Homemaking for Mary Hines

What I Am Doing to Improve:

Problem	Pupil	Teacher	Parent
Grooming	Oct. 20. I shampooed my own hair for the first time. Nov. 1. I kept my nails clean for a week.	Oct. 15. Mary keeps her hair more tidy. Nov. 5. She polishes her shoes each week.	Oct. 13. Mary shows more interest in daily bathing. Jan. 1. Mary presses her clothes now.
Making and enjoying friends	Oct. 10. I made a new friend at school today. Dec. 18. Plan to have a Christmas party for my friends.	Nov. 26. Mary is learning how to keep friends as well as make them. Apr. 1. She seems to enjoy being friends with all her class.	Oct. 15. Mary has learned to make friends with the boys as well as girls.
Co-operating — adjusting to changes	Dec. 3. I can now help Mother with all the Saturday cleaning. June 5. I like to care for my baby brother better than at first.	Feb. 6. She is learning to be a good leader by working well with others.	Nov. 27. Mary gets up when she is called and is ready for meals on time.
Assuming responsibility	Oct. 24. I washed all my hose today. Nov. 11. I kept Jimmie while Mother shopped.	Dec. 8. She volunteered to shop for party. Mar. 9. She undertook a home experience project on spring cleaning.	Nov. 14. She takes care of her room. She prepares baby's supper. Jan. 12. She helps buy groceries.
Planning for work — play	Nov. 20. I made and used a plan for Saturday jobs. Dec. 20. I planned Christmas vacation.	Feb. 6. She uses a plan for laboratory work. Mar. 19. She has more time for fun at home.	Jan. 1. Mary does twice as much to help me by using a plan; so we have time for fun too.

Signature: Pupil: *Mary Hines*
Teacher: *Joan Hartman*
Mother: *Mrs. M. J. Hines*

Most educators agree that mental ability is the power of the individual to learn. As a rule mental ability is measured in terms of the extent to which an individual has acquired a number of specific and largely unrelated abilities. Most mental or so-called intelligence tests consist of a battery of different tests based on what the average individual can do at certain age levels. The total

score is taken as an index of general intelligence. For example, if a twelve-year-old pupil passes all the test items which are considered normal for twelve-year-olds, then that pupil is credited with a mental age of twelve years. If this same pupil passes all the items at the fourteen-year-old level, then that pupil has a mental age of fourteen years.

The Meaning of IQ

It has been recognized for some time that mental age is not significant until compared with chronological or life age. The ratio between the two gives an estimate of the rate of mental development and is used as an index of general intelligence. Probably the best known symbol for intelligence is IQ, standing for intelligence quotient. It is obtained by dividing the mental age (the age norm that represents an individual's score on the test) by the chronological age and multiplying by 100. For example, a pupil with a mental age of 12 years or 144 months and a chronological age of 12 years or 144 months would rate an IQ of 100. A pupil with a mental age of 14 years or 168 months and a chronological age of 12 years or 144 months would rate an IQ of 117. A pupil who has a mental age of 10 years or 120 months and a chronological age of 12 years or 144 months will rate an IQ of 83. When an IQ is recorded, the test used to determine the mental age should always be reported since some tests are considered more valid and reliable than others.

The table on page 112 shows an arbitrary division of the IQ into different areas, made purely for the purpose of convenience. Other division points are sometimes used. There is no abrupt change between any two areas any more than there are abrupt changes in the heights of various individuals. Each different area shades almost imperceptibly into the next. The matter of being superior is primarily a matter of having more of the same thing than is possessed by the average child, whereas the matter of being dull is largely a matter of having less of the same thing.

The Constancy of the IQ

There has been some controversy over the question whether or not the IQ remains the same over a period of years. Recent studies

Classification of IQ's

IQ	Classification	Per Cent of All Children Included
Above 130	Extremely superior, near genius, or genius	1%
120–130	Very superior	5%
110–120	Superior	14%
90–110	Normal or average	60%
80–90	Dull normal	14%
70–80	Borderline deficiency	5%
40–70	Feebleminded — morons	1% (40–70, 20–40 and 0–20 combined)
20–40	Imbeciles	
0–20	Idiots	

with children of preschool and primary age indicate that improved stimulation will raise the IQ of some children while the exposure to a non-stimulating environment will tend to lower the IQ. There is little doubt that environmental factors at an early age may cause the performance on intelligence tests to fluctuate even though mental growth proceeds at a fairly steady rate. As a rule pupils over six years of age when tested year after year under normal conditions of development tend to show little variation in IQ. This simply means that intelligence test results are stable to the extent that the educational opportunities in the pupils' environments remain about the same.

Types of Intelligence Tests

Intelligence tests may be classified as individual and group tests according to the manner in which they are given. An *individual test*, as its name implies, is given to only one pupil at a time. This type of test is used to compare the intelligence of different pupils who have had the same learning opportunities. This means that pupils must be measured by the same instrument under the same conditions. Probably the revised Stanford-Binet scale yields the most valid and reliable results. The chief advantage of the individual intelligence test is the opportunity it offers to a trained examiner to observe a pupil's behavior under standard conditions.

Individual testing, however, is expensive because it calls for a special type of trained worker and takes a good deal of time. Many schools, therefore, cannot afford this means of evaluation even though it is very valuable.

A *group test*, which is devised to evaluate abilities similar to those measured in the individual test, is so called because one examiner can give it to a number of students at the same time. Group testing requires less time and less training on the part of the examiner, but the results are not considered as valid and reliable as those of an individual test. For example, in giving a group test the examiner is unable to observe the manner in which each pupil reacts to the test. Some pupils may be working up to normal capacity; others may refuse to try the items which seem difficult, while some may lose interest and fail to show what they really can do, thereby lowering their scores. Thus the evaluation of intelligence made on the basis of the score only would be erroneous in some cases. The possibility of such errors with individual testing is minimized, although in neither case should a single test score be accepted as the final indication of a pupil's ability. A series of tests from year to year are recommended.

USING INTELLIGENCE TEST SCORES

Individual and group testing has been briefly described so that the homemaking teacher may understand the significance of each type of evaluation although it is not expected that she will be called upon to participate actively in a testing program. As a rule the school administration gives and records group tests while a trained examiner from a central office administers and interprets individual tests. The results are usually made available to the teaching staff for guidance purposes but are seldom if ever given to parents in terms of IQ since few parents understand the assumptions underlying such tests. However, intelligence test scores have little or no value to the homemaking teacher unless she is able to make a practical application of these scores in her own classroom. This means understanding the value of intelligence tests and at the same time comprehending their limitations.

Value of Intelligence Tests

It must be realized first of all that intelligence tests tend to measure general ability only and not special talents or personality traits. Such tests indicate what a pupil *can* achieve but not what the achievement will actually be. Too many other factors affect achievement, such as effort or lack of effort, the degree of interest shown, or the health of the individual. With these limitations in mind, intelligence tests may serve as a means of identifying pupils of low ability so that they may receive special instruction which will meet their needs, and of identifying pupils of high ability so that the maximum development of their capacities may be obtained. They also indicate whether or not pupils have sufficient intelligence to make a successful adjustment in certain occupations, although it must be remembered that intelligence tests offer little evidence of personality characteristics which may be even more important in determining success. In short, intelligence tests should serve as a basis for educational and vocational guidance only when the total picture of the pupil is taken into consideration. This means that no single test should serve as a basis for classification. In communities where an individual testing program exists, the homemaking teacher should avail herself of the opportunity to have a trained examiner test pupils who appear to be maladjusted, or who have pronounced personality difficulties, or who have a succession of failing marks. This subject is discussed at length in Chapter 9, "Problems of Maladjustment."

Achievement and Mental Ability

An IQ between 90–110 is assumed to represent the mental development of the average pupil. Most school curricula are set at this standard. Pupils with IQ's above 110 can do the average classroom work in a much shorter time than pupils with less ability, and for that reason will need to be encouraged to make additional contributions to the group so that they will not become bored. Pupils with IQ's between 80–90 need special assistance if they are to approximate what the average pupil is expected to achieve. When encouraged and carefully trained in work they can do, they may become socially and later economically adjusted, although they

should not be expected to compete against pupils with higher intelligence. Pupils with IQ's below 80 will have difficulty attaining average school achievement. There are, however, simple activities they can do fairly well, and when mental requirements are at a minimum they often adjust to classroom routine without difficulty. As a general rule, pupils with IQ's below 70 are not admitted to the average classroom.

As stated before, teachers should realize that a knowledge of pupils' IQ's does not always indicate what pupils will actually achieve. If poorly motivated or maladjusted, a pupil of average intelligence may do work inferior to that of a pupil with considerably less ability; whereas another pupil of average ability may surpass the record of some of greater ability. Superior ability does not necessarily mean superior achievement. It merely indicates that a pupil has the capacity for achieving successfully a greater number of activities than a pupil with less ability.

EVALUATING PERSONALITY GROWTH

Evaluating personality changes is a complex matter and requires a certain amount of practice and training. Part of the difficulty is due to the fact that there are no right and wrong answers to tests of personality such as there are to achievement tests, and, consequently, diagnosis and prognosis are extremely complicated. Furthermore, knowledge of the significance of personality test scores is limited since there are no definite classifications of types of people, and since the number of personality traits has not yet been determined. In fact, it is not even agreed that there are personality traits. Some educators believe that personality is made up of certain characteristic patterns of response based primarily on personal needs and desires. But whatever the concept may be, all personality test scores are relative to the scores of other persons which means that those tested resemble members of a defined group. It must also be remembered that there is a negligible relationship between school grades and personality tests; that is, personality tests cannot be used to predict achievement. The question may then be asked, "Of what value are such tests?"

The answer to this is that in evaluating pupil progress, personality development plays an important part in determining the extent of the total growth process. For example, sometimes inadequate achievement on the part of a pupil brings about certain undesirable patterns of response. Frequently it is the other way around; certain characteristic patterns of behavior produce poor achievement. On the other hand, there are countless pupils making average progress who might be able to attain a higher standard of development if certain superior patterns of response could be acquired. Whatever the situation, personality tests attempt to reveal not only undesirable personal tendencies which need to be eliminated, but to identify personality assets which may be improved.

INSTRUMENTS OF EVALUATION

The development of scientific measurement in the field of personality is relatively recent, but at the present time a considerable number of really objective measures are available to teachers who desire to evaluate personality scientifically rather than by haphazard and subjective impressions. Care should be taken, however, not to make any one test the sole basis for diagnosis and remedial procedure. Other sources of information should be used along with personality evaluation.

There are various approaches to securing personality information, such as observing a pupil's conduct, asking others about the pupil, and direct questioning of the pupil.

Observation

Casual observations as a rule do not yield accurate data. All observations need to be thorough in nature and should be recorded while the behavior is being observed, although no interpretation should be made until later. All analyses should be based on comparisons of other pupils in the same situation and under the same conditions. One of the types of observation most frequently used by teachers is the anecdotal record.

The anecdotal record: Chapter 5, "Evaluating Achievement," has

shown how anecdotal records kept by the pupils are a means of estimating pupil progress. In diagnosing personality trends this device, which is a running account of pupil experiences, is believed to be one of the most adequate for measuring certain kinds of behavior which cannot otherwise be evaluated. Some schools make a practice of having all of the teachers keep anecdotal records of all students or of those who manifest unusual behavior. Such records are kept in the pupil's personal file in the office and are made available to the teaching staff or to special workers for guidance purposes. In other schools teachers keep anecdotal records for their own use but often interchange records with other teachers in cases where unusual behavior warrants special study. The following requirements are considered essential for adequate anecdotal procedure. Each anecdote

1. should be recorded individually
2. should be brief
3. should tell what actually happened
4. should deal with a single situation even of long duration
5. should be written while behavior is still vivid
6. should be drawn from spontaneous actions
7. should include descriptions of actual behavior and conversations
8. should not necessarily be confined to classroom situations

The following illustrations indicate two types of behavior as recorded by anecdotal records.

Jane, a bright fifteen-year-old girl bubbling over with energy, in addition to being an only child for eight years, is the only granddaughter in a family with nine grandchildren. Her parents live on the outskirts of a city where her father is periodically employed in a stove factory. Despite his lack of steady employment, the family with careful planning not only have been able to provide the necessities of life but have managed to clothe Jane very attractively. In keeping with the parental philosophy that good marks received at school are the total index of progress, Jane has always directed her efforts toward this goal regardless of the method used.

Date	*Observer*	*Anecdotal Record*
Sept. 5	Homemaking Teacher	While helping to plan the "Get Acquainted Party," Jane said, "Gee, this is fun." Her attitude was so bossy that the other girls definitely resented it.
Sept. 9	Homemaking Teacher	At the "Get Acquainted Party," although on the introduction committee, Jane made herself conspicuous by dashing around first to the kitchen to see about the refreshments and then back to the table where the food was to be served.
Sept. 16	Home Room Teacher	Jane monopolized the fifteen-minute period by telling the other boys and girls how they should vote in the school election.
Oct. 1	English Teacher	When the main characters for the junior class play were selected, Jane was not chosen. She sulked for three days and was heard to remark to Alice, "I'm not going to even try for one of those other parts if I can't play the heroine."
Oct. 14	Art Teacher	Jane confided in me that the other students did not like her because her picture was selected to be exhibited in the State contest. When I explained that perhaps it was not so much the fact that her picture was to represent the school as her giving the appearance of feeling superior, she looked surprised and made little response.
Oct. 26	Homemaking Teacher	Soon after the Homemaking III Class had used the Personality Rating Sheet, Jane came to me for advice on overcoming the char-

Date	*Observer*	*Anecdotal Record*
		acteristics on which she had been scored low. She seemed concerned, explaining that never before had she been left out of class parties. She appeared happy about the possibility of taking this problem as a home experience.
Nov. 1	Homemaking Teacher	Jane submitted a well-planned home experience which included ways and means of overcoming undesirable personality traits.
Nov. 23	Librarian	Jane has been working as my assistant since the beginning of the fall term. She gets along so well with the first- and second-graders that I plan to ask the office to have her continue here the second semester.
Dec. 8	Traffic Co-ordinator	At the lunch hour Jane serves on hall duty. She always organizes her squad. When a traffic violation needed attention the other day, Jane said, "May I see your permit, please?" Once there was no permit slip, and Jane smiled and said, "You are a booster for good citizenship, aren't you?"
Jan. 15	Homemaking Teacher	Jane's mother attended the Home Experience Program Day. After Jane gave her report her mother said, "I'm really grateful for the help Jane has received on this project. Both her father and I have noticed a marked improvement in Jane in getting along with her younger brother and in co-operating with us. We hope she may continue the project."

Date	*Observer*	*Anecdotal Record*
Feb. 19	Home Room Teacher	Jane became concerned about the lack of good manners shown in our home room. When I asked her what she felt might be done about the problem, she suggested a committee might write some skits while others might give them.
March 21	Homemaking Teacher	When the Homemaking Club planned a spring cleanup campaign, Jane refrained from offering suggestions until after the other pupils had discussed the matter. She then helped to organize the work for each committee.
April 17	Gym Teacher	In planning the May Day Festivities, Jane asked, "May I help to direct the part of the program with the grade school?" She seemed to understand how to work with groups of children and spent extra hours after school helping the mothers make the costumes.
May 29	Homemaking Teacher	When Mr. F., the principal, asked a committee of teachers to pass on the eligibility of five names which students had submitted for student council president, Jane was selected as one of them. A few days later she was elected vice-president for her senior year. Jane said, "This has been my best year in high school, and I shall never forget how much you can learn by being interested and by co-operating with others."

Sylvia, a strikingly pretty girl fifteen years of age with average intelligence, comes from a family whose parents are separated. Sylvia and a younger sister live with their mother, who works as an office clerk in a department store. They have a small house in a run-down neighborhood, but the furnishings are modern and well chosen. Sylvia, who has had three years of homemaking classes, and her sister are supposed to keep the house in order and prepare the evening meal which has been planned by the mother. The living room was very untidy when a home visit was recently made.

Date	*Observer*	*Anecdotal Record*
Sept. 4	Homemaking Teacher	At the first lesson in food preparation, Sylvia placed hair net on top of head so that it would fall off. "I just can't keep this hair net on. Do I have to wear it?" Wiped her hands on her partner's apron.
Sept. 10	Homemaking Teacher	Deliberately bumped into Harold while carrying dishwater to sink. Much laughter on her part. Wiped water off floor with dish cloth and then dish towel.
Sept 21	Supervisor of Cafeteria	Sylvia came in late but pushed her way to the head of the line, saying, "I can't wait, I'm hungry."
Oct. 11	Homemaking Teacher	"Aren't we going to cook today? I want to cook — not talk. I'm going back over to the other building." The girls told her to sit down which she finally did, but she took no part in the class discussion.
Oct. 20	Homemaking Teacher	"Why did I get such a low grade? The food I cook is always good." When unfinished work and poor quality of what had been done was pointed out to her, she seemed very resentful and flounced out of the room.

Date	*Observer*	*Anecdotal Record*
Nov. 12	Traffic Co-ordinator	Threw a popcorn box down from the balcony at a group of teachers directly below. Then was overheard to say, "Next time I'll throw something harder."
Nov. 20	Home Room Teacher	Skipped study hall in order to help another girl shape and bake rolls for a meal.
Nov. 30	Traffic Co-ordinator	Sylvia created a commotion in the hall when she saw a boy she did not like and rammed her head into his stomach knocking him completely out.
Dec. 5	Homemaking Teacher	When the class used the Personality Rating Sheet, Sylvia was rated very low on several traits. When the suggestion was given that she make this situation the basis for a Home Experience, she shrugged her shoulders and replied, "What do I care what others think of me?"
Dec. 10	Office Clerk	Sylvia applied for a working permit. When told she could not work after six o'clock, she said, "Nobody can stop me. I'll work whenever I want to."
Dec. 20	Homemaking Teacher	Came to school wearing a man's suit. Most of the time had pant legs rolled above knees.
Jan. 11	Homemaking Teacher	Expelled from 4–H Club because of misbehavior and non-co-operation. Attended yearly 4–H rally after this had happened.
Jan. 20	Homemaking Teacher	On the last day of the semester was heard to remark, "I made a record in this class. This is the only one I haven't been sent out of the whole semester."

Date	*Observer*	*Anecdotal Record*
Jan. 21	Homemaking Teacher	Recommended to principal that Sylvia be interviewed by a guidance specialist during the mid-semester vacation.

Rating Scales

Another way of evaluating personality is through the self-rating of a pupil or through ratings by others. It is generally believed that some rating scales provide a means of increasing the definiteness of teachers' judgments on aspects of personality which cannot be measured by objective means, such as accuracy, initiative, reliability, co-operation, and leadership. When ratings are made by teachers, at least eight qualified raters are necessary in order to achieve reliability suitable for individual diagnosis. This is due to the fact that people react differently in different situations. Therefore, several raters must be used to get an average rating. The reliability of a rating also varies with the aspect being measured. For example "ability" can be rated more easily than "impulsiveness" because there are more definite factors on which to base opinions. Although none of the standard rating scales are entirely satisfactory, they do give some indication of an individual's standing in respect to certain patterns of response. Some of the best-known rating scales are the Carnegie Institute of Technology *Scale for Self-Rating* and the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman *Behavior Rating Schedules*.[2] The former is used for self-analysis while the latter is used in rating others.

Questioning Techniques

There are various ways of dealing with this procedure, any one of which may yield important data. Among others are the questionnaire and the personal interview. In both cases the material should be carefully analyzed, since the pupil may attempt to hide the real difficulty.

The Questionnaire. One of the most common procedures is to have the pupil fill out a set of standardized questions with *yes* and *no*

[2] M. E. Haggerty, W. C. Olson, and E. K. Wickman, *Behavior Rating Schedules* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1930).

answers concerning desires, experiences, attitudes, beliefs, habits, and typical reactions to certain specific situations. It is then possible to determine the significance of certain kinds of responses and in this way detect possible maladjustments or a need for the improvement of certain personality responses. Early questionnaires attempted to measure single aspects, but at the present time there is a tendency to evaluate composite trends in personality. The *Bernreuter Personality Inventory* [3] yields data regarding introversion-extroversion, neurotic tendency, ascendance-submission, self-sufficiency, self-confidence, and sociability. The *Bell Adjustment Inventory* [4] attempts to measure home environment, health, social adjustment, and emotional adjustment. *The California Test of Personality* [5] is designed to measure self-adjustment and social adjustment in terms of personal worth, sense of personal freedom, feeling of belonging, knowledge of social standards, community relationships, and others.

The chief criticism of the personality questionnaire concerns the truthfulness of statements made by the pupil answering it. This is not as serious as it might be, since answers are considered quantitatively; that is, as a whole rather than separately. Even though a few answers might be untruthful, this would not materially affect the questionnaire rating as a whole.

The Interview. Although the purpose of an interview is to obtain significant information which may reveal personality tendencies, the results are not always as satisfactory as the test procedure, which is more controlled and standardized. Sometimes a pupil will exaggerate a situation in order to gain the sympathy of the teacher or will make an attempt to cover up an emotional matter for fear that any unusual disclosures may cause the teacher to lower her estimate of the pupil. For this reason a complete stranger may be more successful with the interview technique. However, casual conversations between a teacher and a pupil often

[3] R. G. Bernreuter, *The Personality Inventory* (Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1931).

[4] H. M. Bell, *The Bell Adjustment Inventory* (Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1934).

[5] L. P. Thorpe, W. W. Clark, and E. W. Tiegs, *California Test of Personality* (Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1939).

reveal much about a pupil's interests and attitudes and is to be preferred in most instances to the formal interview. But even a casual interview must be planned by the teacher, at least to the extent of knowing something about the interests and achievements of the pupil so that pertinent questions may be asked. The best way to evaluate an interview, though, is to consider the procedure simply a means of collecting impressions which need to be substantiated before final conclusions can be drawn.

USING MEASURES OF PERSONALITY

It is becoming increasingly apparent that teachers must be able to evaluate wholesome personality tendencies which make adequate growth possible. In many communities the school administration or a special examiner administers and records standardized personality tests with the view to determining and later remedying possible maladjustments. All guidance officers, however, are dependent upon the classroom teacher for certain fundamental information which she only can furnish because of her daily student contacts. Since most cases of maladjustment come to light in the classroom, every teacher needs to be prepared to understand personality development and to interpret measures of personality so that she may learn to recognize the more serious aspects which need special attention from guidance personnel, and the less serious tendencies which can be modified by the teacher herself. In this way not only are serious maladjustments avoided, but many pupils who would otherwise make average personality development are able to acquire superior growth. Chapters 8 and 9, "Understanding Adolescents" and "Problems of Maladjustment," discuss this further.

Moreover, teachers must realize that as pupils grow, personality changes occur. This means that records which contain personality tests must be up-to-date, or they will be of little value. When using information which the administration may have made available, homemaking teachers should be encouraged to add to it from time to time in order to keep it up-to-date. Furthermore, if doubt ever arises as to the significance of a particular personality trend. the

homemaking teacher should not under any consideration attempt to interpret or modify this trend without consulting the principal or a trained worker. As knowledge of personality develops, more and more information will be available to the teacher for classroom use. At the present time various tests of personality are on the market. Many of these tests are interesting, but if their use is contemplated by the homemaking teacher, she should consult a specialist so that she may be certain that such tests serve a definite purpose in pupil development.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Eunice, a quiet, listless sort of person, has been doing very poor work for some time. She seems unable to understand simple directions without becoming confused and shows little or no initiative in planning and carrying out class experiences. The office has a cumulative record of three intelligence tests giving Eunice an IQ of 109, 94, 102. What are some possible reasons why Eunice's work is below standard?
2. Mary, an attractive, ambitious seventeen-year-old pupil, wants to become a trained nurse. Intelligence tests appear to indicate that Mary has an IQ between 80–90 although she has done passable work for some time. What factors should determine whether or not Mary should be discouraged from entering the nursing profession?
3. Enid, a rather colorless, unattractive girl, has an IQ of approximately 135. She has always been one of the best students in the class although she has never developed the spirit of co-operation, and prefers to work alone most of the time. She looks forward to becoming a teacher of homemaking. How would you advise her?
4. Discuss how you would explain to a parent a succession of failures on the part of a pupil whose IQ is estimated at 75.
5. Make a list of characteristics necessary for adequate personality development. List others which might lead to superior development.
6. Make a study of a standardized personality questionnaire and a rating scale and indicate how they might be effectively used in the average homemaking classroom.
7. Discuss the ways in which the suggestions for assigning marks fail to meet the real problem involved. What suggestions can you offer to supplement those given?
8. As a group decide what you can do now toward facing the long-term problem involved in marking.

9. A class in foods decided co-operatively with the teacher that the score on meal preparation check lists and the score on food products should together count approximately twice as much as class contributions and the written test. The following shows the teacher's class book record for the six-week period. Attempt to interpret the record.

Pupil	× 8 Class Contribution	× 2 Score on Meal Preparation Check Lists	Score on Food Products	Test	Final Grade
Benson, Alice	C+ * 52	111 222	148	91	513 A−
Black, Helen	B 64	100 200	118	83	465 B
Block, Mary	D 32	80 160	130	73	395 C
Brown, Jean	C 48	85 170	92	80	390 C
Hart, Dorothy	C− 44	80 160	84	74	362 D
Hart, Marilyn	A 88	80 160	85	91	424 C+
Jones, Charlotte	B 64	102 204	120	80	468 B
Smith, Elizabeth	A− 80	110 220	139	89	528 A
Smith, Marie	D 32	75 150	95	70	347 D
Smith, Mary Lee	C 48	82 104	98	80	390 C
Thompson, Gladys	C− 44	89 178	80	63	365 D+
White, Josephine	B 64	95 100	100	75	429 C+
Whittier, Hazel	D 32	100 200	105	67	404 C

* Conversion scale: A = 11, A− = 10, B+ = 9, B = 8, B− = 7.5, C+ = 6.5, C = 6, C− = 5.5, D+ = 4.5, D = 4, D− = 3, F = 1.

7

Efficiency in Learning

The best educator is the one who knows how to stimulate.

PIERRE JANET

THE ADAPTATION of goal-seeking procedure to classes in homemaking not only includes determining objectives, experiences, and methods of evaluating achievement toward these goals, but also involves a knowledge of the principles and conditions of learning. This book is not concerned with the intricate and complicated mechanism of the mind but rather in understanding learning in terms of behavior and in describing the principles and conditions of learning which will enable the teacher to use goal-seeking techniques most effectively.

THE LEARNING PROCESS

There are various explanations to account for learning, but practically all educators agree that the process involves physical and mental changes which make it possible for an individual to do something which he could not do previously. These changes, often described in terms of "motor" or "mental" learning, are closely related and in the field of homemaking should not be separated. Probably they should be considered as different aspects of the same function.

The extent to which the learning process becomes efficient depends more or less upon the circumstances and conditions which

surround the learner. It has long been recognized that pupils do their own learning and that optimum development depends largely upon pupil activity. But ever since it was realized that pupils differ in respect to the way they learn and the extent to which they learn, educators have considered directed learning as a necessary counterpart of classroom procedure. Efficiency in teaching has come to mean efficiency in planning and directing the course of learning for others.

Principles of Learning

There are various principles governing the learning process, but how effectively they can be put into practice depends upon how they are used in the school environment. In order to make learning more efficient the homemaking teacher will need to understand how pupils react to certain learning situations. On the basis of this knowledge she will then be able to help her pupils put into practice the most economical and profitable ways of learning. Lack of experience makes it impossible for most pupils to discover these things for themselves. There must be someone to interpret the changes which take place in behavior through mental development so that pupils will be able not only to adjust to classroom procedure and achieve educational objectives through the use of efficient learning techniques but also to apply these techniques to the everyday experiences in life.

THE INADEQUACY OF TRIAL-AND-ERROR LEARNING

In many respects trial-and-error procedure is present in most forms of learning. It is a process of learning by doing. When pupils are confronted with unfamiliar situations, their natural reaction is to try first one thing, then another, in more or less random fashion until the situation becomes meaningful to them and ultimately results in being learned. Most learning involves making initial errors and then later eliminating them, but certainly it is

not necessary for pupils to do the wrong thing before they can do the right one. They need not arrive at the right way merely as a last resort. The trial-and-error way of learning is generally an uneconomical procedure and if employed to any great extent in the classroom would undoubtedly call for too great an expenditure of time and effort. For example, few teachers would recommend learning to use the sewing machine without instruction beforehand. It is the teacher's task to provide situations which will reduce trial and error. This can be done by preparing pupils for the situation to which they are to respond. "Think before you act" implies that it *is* possible to avoid errors by foreseeing and making provision for difficulties that may occur. If class goals are explicit and are well understood before activity begins, pupils tend to reason things out as they go along and thus avoid an undue number of errors.

GUIDING INITIAL STAGES OF LEARNING

Some educators believe that the initial stages of a learning process should be carefully supervised. This theory is based on the assumption that first impressions tend to be more lasting than those intermediate between first and last. We all know that when we first approach a task, our interest is keen and we are alert to the total situation. Later, fatigue and mental confusion, perhaps lack of interest, often weaken the original drive. Many teachers, therefore, make a special effort to see that first impressions are correct because they believe that doing this will help pupils make fewer errors. Supervision starts at the beginning of a new task and continues until pupils understand the situation well enough not to make habitual errors.

For example, Miss James, who teaches clothing, complains that several of her students have never learned to hold their needles correctly in making the running stitch. Perhaps Miss James does not realize that those students were not carefully supervised the first time the stitch was demonstrated and may have learned to hold the needle incorrectly.

On the other hand, supervision should not extend for so long a time that pupils become dependent upon the teacher for every step they take. The teacher will need to encourage pupils to progress through their own initiative and make necessary adjustments without assistance. Since pupils differ in their rate of progress, the intervals between supervision will necessarily depend upon the level of ability and maturity of the group and the type of work they are doing. Young or dull pupils require more guidance than older or bright pupils, while long, involved activities or projects progress more favorably when supervision is made at intervals not too far apart. In all cases the teacher should use her own judgment as to the frequency of supervision, keeping in mind the fact that provided the pupils understand the goals toward which they are working, the more independent they will tend to become.

USING MODELS AND DEMONSTRATIONS

As far back as the seventeenth century, educators recognized the value of having suitable models for classroom learning. A completed activity really represents a concrete goal and as such gives the pupils an excellent picture of what can be accomplished. Verbal instructions are sometimes vague or hazy and are often misunderstood by some of the pupils. Then the goal is dimmed, and progress is unnecessarily slow. But when models or demonstrations accompany verbal directions, learning becomes more efficient. Many pupils can imitate what they see better than they can follow verbal directions. This can easily be seen by comparing the buttonholes of a beginning group which had followed directions in a book with the buttonholes of a beginning group which had observed a demonstration.

The function of imitation, however, is limited because the observer usually perceives the activity as a whole and fails to grasp particular details. But even though the use of a model produces only an attempt to attain a goal, its value as a start in the right direction is important. Under the guidance of the teacher the details of a performance can be worked out as knowledge of the task increases, although care should be taken not to spend too much

practice on separate details lest their relationship to the total performance be lost. It is generally far better for pupils to know how to be able to do the whole activity passably well than to do one segment of it perfectly.

PRESENTING MATERIAL IN WHOLES OR IN PARTS

The question often arises whether material to be learned should be presented as a whole unit or in sections. Some educators have found that if the material is presented in parts there is more rapid learning, since the average pupil's span of attention is necessarily limited in its strength and energy. When the material is presented in wholes under the same circumstances, the middle part of the material is usually not thoroughly learned due to the subsequent relaxation of attention. Other educators who favor the "whole" technique have found that that technique saves time and effort, that retention is better, and that a larger number of associations are formed when this procedure is used. Brighter pupils tend to do better when the "whole" is presented.

Undoubtedly there is something to be said on both sides, and perhaps the question should be, not whether to use the "whole" or the "part" technique, but how both may be used.

For example, the teacher who encourages the pupils during the first few days of school to outline in a general way the year's work and then later at intervals plans with them the details of each part, is employing both techniques which is undoubtedly preferable in this instance. The class which sets up tentatively all the goals which they expect to attain in a child development unit and then works toward one goal at a time is also employing both the "whole" and the "part" technique.

Whenever feasible it would seem desirable for the pupils to have a picture of the whole before working on the parts. The goal-seeking procedure around which this book is developed is itself concerned with letting pupils see the whole toward which they are working and then in helping them in whatever way or on whatever part of the whole will contribute best to their individual development.

It should be recognized, however, that in the case of pupils with above average intelligence, the whole may be larger than for students with below average ability. In other words brighter pupils are able to visualize more effectively and to a greater degree than slower pupils, who sometimes are unable to comprehend even the things which are pointed out to them.

For example, one or two of the brightest pupils in a group may be able to visualize the details of a large banquet and see how the contribution of each person in the class fits together in the total picture. A few others may be able to see their individual contributions in terms of a small group and the contribution of the group to the whole. Undoubtedly there will still be other members in the class who are able to concentrate only on the immediate work at hand. Perhaps one girl should be chairman of the banquet, and another girl co-chairman. Others might serve as chairmen of small groups while the remainder of the class may make their contribution as workers within small groups.

In acquiring motor skills it is believed by some educators that the most economical technique consists of practicing the whole performance with specific practice on the parts which are troublesome or difficult, holding the part-whole relationship in mind and making the segment an integral part of the whole performance as soon as possible.[1] This is referred to as the "whole-part-whole" learning sequence and is believed to apply in both mental learning and motor development.

REPETITION IN LEARNING

For many years it was believed that repetition was necessary for the acquisition of knowledge and skill. "Practice makes perfect" was long a common maxim in the classroom. At the present time, however, the concept of repetition has taken on new meanings which are believed to have significant implications in the learning process. Educators have come to realize that although some repetition of an act is usually necessary, mere repetition alone does not

[1] Arthur I. Gates, Arthur T. Jersild, T. R. McConnell, and Robert C. Challman, *Educational Psychology* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1942), p. 385.

always produce learning. Certain conditions must be present if repetition is to be effective.

In the first place the teacher must be certain that the material or skill to be learned is comprehended as a whole by each pupil. The more meaning the task possesses, the greater is the basis for associations which help eliminate errors. At the same time the teacher needs to make it apparent why repetition of an activity is sometimes necessary. Pupils may think that one demonstration of how to clean and take care of the laboratory is sufficient. They do not realize that the many details involved make it necessary for them to practice correct procedure several times before complete learning will take place. Furthermore, when repetition of an activity occurs, pupils must be convinced that the mastery of the subject matter or skill in question is important.

For example, at school Jean has been taught to scald dishes after washing them in hot soapy water. Every morning and evening at home she is accustomed to wash the dishes in hot water but has never been taught to scald them. The teacher wonders why Jean does not remember to scald the dishes at school although she has been told to do so repeatedly. In Jean's case, learning to scald the dishes at school and at home will not result until Jean has been made to see for herself that it is desirable and important to apply at home what she has learned at school.

The same criteria for learning — comprehension and meaningful repetition — also apply to situations of learning outside the class room. In the home environment the parents, other adults, or older brothers and sisters assume the rôle of teacher in guiding and directing learning for younger members of the household. It is comparatively easy for the teacher to assimilate and apply knowledge of learning to classroom activities. The real test comes in teaching pupils how to apply principles of learning to situations outside the school environment.

An illustration of this factor is found in the following incident: Seventeen-year-old Mary has repeatedly told her little brother to hang up his coat when he comes in from play. If Mary is there to remind him, Bob hangs up the coat; otherwise it is thrown on the floor. Mary is unable to understand why Bob has not learned to

hang up his coat although he has been told to do so for a long time. Mary does not realize that merely telling Bob over and over again to hang up his coat is not sufficient. She should have made him want to hang up the coat of his own accord. If after a certain length of time Bob had not learned to hang up the coat, Mary should realize that probably she was more at fault than Bob. Perhaps her directions had been vague; perhaps they had been given half-heartedly or in a hurry, repeated each time in a different way. Probably Bob was not paying strict attention and did not realize that there was any special necessity for hanging up his coat. Mary should then begin her training again, this time by being on hand when Bob comes in to see that he hangs up the coat and to make further efforts to bring about a realization on Bob's part why the coat *must* be hung up. If these conditions are fulfilled, it may be expected that after a certain length of time, varying of course with different children, the habit of voluntarily hanging up the coat will have been established, and repeated instructions to do so will not be necessary.

It must be realized, of course, that the amount of repetition necessary depends largely upon a pupil's intelligence. Bright students require less repetition because they learn more easily and form a larger number of associations which aid retention. With dull pupils it may be necessary to view first of all the complete task and then break it down into parts proceeding step by step. Encouraging correct responses at each step eliminates many errors which would later have to be unlearned. Repetitions are usually more effective when an interval elapses between each period and when pupils are not required to hurry.

Motivational Factors

Goal-seeking procedure is based on the assumption that learning proceeds best when pupils take an active part in the learning process. Efficiency in learning implies that pupils arouse and maintain strong drives toward the achievement of classroom goals primarily through their own initiative under the guidance of the teacher. As a rule there is sufficient innate motivation to attain personal goals

especially if these goals seem important and worthwhile to the individual, but in the learning process educational goals often need stimulation before they become intrinsically interesting. Until homemaking teachers have become thoroughly familiar with goal-seeing techniques, it may be necessary to indicate what motivational factors best operate in the classroom environment.

THE NATURAL IMPULSES OF PUPILS

There is a vast difference between artificial and intrinsic motivation. The former tends to stress entertaining and unusual aspects of the work to be done and in so doing often emphasizes minor details which bear little or no relationship to the goals as a whole. Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is obtained by appealing to the natural impulses of the pupils with the view to stressing the value and importance of the work to be done in terms of its relation to the goals instead of emphasizing any pleasure to be derived or marks to be obtained.

One of these natural impulses is "curiosity." Most pupils like to know what things are and how they work. A home experience about which the teacher raises interesting questions creates curiosity and develops a favorable mental set toward the experience. There is paramount opportunity for stimulating this impulse of curiosity in the field of homemaking since ability *to know* is definitely related to ability *to do*. This situation brings into play the natural impulse of "creativeness," which, contrary to what many people think, does not necessarily imply producing something new. A creative act takes place whenever a pupil plans, constructs, and carries out a series of activities, be it making certain products in the laboratory or setting up goals in the classroom. Encouraging maximum individual responses in class discussions, permitting pupils to work independently or in groups as they wish, making allowances for individual differences in ability — all offer opportunities for creative expression which might not be otherwise possible. Still another natural response is "the desire for social approval." Most pupils take pride in doing what is expected of them mainly because during the adolescent period there is a strong in-

clination to be as much like the rest of the group as possible. Social stimulation is a powerful factor in working with adolescents. Pupils appear to derive an incentive from simply knowing that other pupils around them are working. When pupils engage in a co-operative enterprise, the achievement of the whole group is apt to surpass the achievement of any single person working alone. This simply means that many pupils do better work within a group, either small or large, than by working alone. Slow pupils are more favorably affected by a group than bright pupils. The teacher and the pupil will need to decide which goals can be reached best by social stimulation since situations may vary in different classrooms.

PUNISHMENT AND REWARD

Some educators believing that individuals tend to avoid punishment and painful situations advocate punishment or reproof as an incentive toward correct learning. Many teachers attempt to carry out this theory by giving pupils low marks, by denying them special privileges, by excluding them from honor clubs and societies, or by reproving them alone or in front of the class. Some experiments have indicated that punishment for errors reduces the number of trials necessary for the success of a task and that the learner has a tendency to speed up search for the correct response. Other experiments have shown that punishing correct responses also facilitates learning, perhaps because it shows the learner exactly what is correct and what is incorrect.[2] Still other data indicate, however, that though reproof sometimes has a desirable effect on brighter pupils, it has an unfavorable effect on poor students, although both bright and poor pupils differ individually in their responsiveness to both disapproval and commendation.

However, it is generally conceded by most educators that punishment has a tendency to arouse resentful and antagonistic feelings not only toward the source of the punishment but toward the ad-

[2] K. F. Muenzinger, "Motivation in Learning II: The Function of Electric Shock for Right and Wrong Responses in Human Subjects," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, June, 1934, 17: 439-448.

ministrator as well. Sometimes pupils fail to comprehend why an error is an error and feel that in being punished they are unjustly discriminated against. This situation tends to impede learning instead of motivating it. At the present time most forms of punishment are distasteful to our concepts of civilization. Education seeks to promote happiness, not to cause distress and unhappiness. It would seem, therefore, that since there is almost unanimous agreement among psychologists that rewards which include praise have great beneficial effects on the learning process, most forms of punishment should be eliminated and something constructive used instead.

A critical analysis of the nature of rewards indicates that it is essential for pupils to see the relationship between the reward and the goals which they are striving to attain. High marks, honor societies, special privileges, high praise, and the like lose their value as rewards when they become an end in themselves and not a means to an end. They are artificial incentives and have little importance in motivating learning unless they are accompanied by feelings of satisfaction for having completed the task for its own sake.

KNOWLEDGE OF ACHIEVEMENT

Many pupils lack interest in learning because they do not know how they stand. Possibly there is a monthly report card which indicates a pupil's status in a general way, but this is usually far from satisfactory as a motivating factor. Pupils sometimes complain that examinations or written reports are not returned to them, and except perhaps for a general class discussion, there is no way of ascertaining or correcting mistakes that may have been made. There is probably no greater thrill than knowing you have actually accomplished something. Experimental investigations are consistent in showing not only that frequent knowledge of progress motivates learning but that pupils do not work well without this knowledge.

In certain laboratory situations it is fairly easy for pupils to discover at once the amount of progress they are making and how they

compare with other members of the class. In standard test situations, however, where a total score is all that is given, pupils do not derive much incentive to improve. Diagnostic tests, of course, do reveal weaknesses or errors, but unless corrective measures are taken at once, such tests tend to depress pupils rather than to motivate them. On the other hand, under the guidance of the teacher it is possible for pupils to evaluate their own progress by learning to make graphs or charts and by using various types of self-evaluation devices. A detailed account of such devices has been given in Chapter 5, "Evaluating Achievement."

COMPETITION AS AN INCENTIVE

There is little doubt that competitive behavior develops early in the school life of every child principally because of the social demands placed upon certain actions. Young children soon become aware of their performance as compared with the standards of others and if their performance is inferior, usually make attempts to approximate the others as nearly as possible. Teachers encourage this attitude by offering various rewards because they know that in most cases rivalry is a natural impulse. There is no doubt that competition motivates work that would otherwise be uninteresting. This is certainly true in routine activities such as drill where competition tends to stimulate the rate of work. Although high-school pupils respond less readily to group rivalry than do younger pupils, they can be motivated to some extent by competition with other individuals and by a desire to achieve for themselves — rather than for the group. On the other hand, teachers should be careful not to stimulate too much interpupil competition which has a tendency to develop selfish motives. Rivalry that becomes too personal may also become too antagonistic and may lead to complete indifference toward the welfare of others. Most educators believe, however, that if care is taken to direct competition in the right direction and to the proper degree, it may serve as a highly satisfactory motivating factor.

Group rivalry can best be conducted by arranging groups of approximately the same ability to compete against one another.

This system eliminates the problem of making success or failure a constant factor for any one group. Pupils may be shifted from one group to another in order to maintain the relative equality of the groups. Under this system bright pupils soon learn to assist the poorer students in order to raise the level of achievement of the group in which they are working. Racial groupings, of course, should be carefully avoided.

VARIETY IN CLASS PERIODS

Class periods as a rule cover the better part of an hour, during which time there may be considerable flexibility in how the period is spent. Sometimes, however, a period is not organized to the best advantage. One of the greatest faults is lack of variety in procedure. All too often the entire period is spent doing one thing, either reciting, studying, or testing as the case may be. Although most teachers know that attention is necessary for efficient learning, they fail to take into consideration that learning is not a continuous process unless variety in stimuli is introduced. This means that ordinarily the period should be divided into different kinds of activity all of which should be related to a definite goal or goals. Teachers should also vary methods of presentation so that the material or skills to be learned are seen in their various phases and relationships to the goals that have been set up. This may be done by using models, demonstrations, lecture techniques, and other procedures previously described. Teachers may measure attention in part by the frequency and quality of the questions asked and by the general attitude of the class as a whole. The point is to spur pupils to greater achievement by keeping them actively interested throughout the class period. Any incentive that intensifies interest and keeps the attention from wandering is worth cultivating.

FORGETTING VERSUS RETENTION

All teachers realize that despite attempts to motivate pupils and to produce efficient learning, much that is learned is forgotten sooner or later. In some respects this is as it should be, since forget-

ting helps the learning process in that it enables pupils to lose unessential details. Were it always necessary to remember the totality of each situation, it would be difficult or impossible to discover common principles in a series of learning situations. In general one forgets the most immediately after learning. As time passes, the amount of knowledge retained becomes, of course, progressively smaller until at the end of a year one third to one half is forgotten. Part of the loss occurs during the summer months; but if the material is reviewed, the loss is of a temporary nature. The ground can soon be recovered with no net loss over an extended period of time.

NATURE OF KNOWLEDGE RETAINED

Various experiments upon the retention of motor and mental learning show a low degree of retention for nonsense syllables, abstract words, and disconnected phrases which do not permit the formation of associations. Materials which have meaning and significance and which are definitely related to a "whole" are more readily retained. Why is this? For one thing, if material is meaningful, it is familiar material with which one has previously come in contact, and partial learning has probably already taken place. In the course of time motor skill suffers less loss than does mental learning. This may be due to the fact that since both motor and mental responses are necessary for the acquisition of skills, a larger number of associations are made. Furthermore, motor tasks require more practice for perfection and offer more opportunity for testing one's knowledge as learning progresses than does mental learning.

RETENTIVE ABILITY

Pupils differ widely in their ability to retain knowledge and skills. Most investigators agree that retentive ability is related to intelligence and increases in general with age. As a rule those who learn most quickly retain more than do slow learners. This may be due to the fact that slow learners are less able to concentrate on

the task at hand. They cannot distinguish between important and unimportant points because their ideas and impressions as a whole tend to be vague and undifferentiated. On the other hand, good learners are able to visualize a learning situation in all its aspects and have little trouble focusing all their energies on a particular task. This means that while certain things must be done for every pupil in a learning situation, slow learners will need to have more direction than others if success is to be attained.

FACTORS FAVORING RETENTION

Just what really causes loss of knowledge or skill has not been conclusively determined. It was formerly believed to be due to disuse, lapse of time, or partial learning; but educators at the present time tend to favor a theory which implies that forgetting is the result of a process of interference between new and old learning. This simply means, for example, that although a certain principle in applied science may have been learned the first of the week, the majority of the class will be unable to recall it at the end of the week due to the fact that new material or new activities interfere with the retention of the principle previously learned. Experiments also indicate that the retention of learning is low when the material learned is followed by entirely different material or a new unrelated activity. Retention is likely to be especially low when too similar material is used. The teacher would, therefore, be wise to use material which is related to the material previously learned but which is not so similar as to be confusing.

It also appears true that if material is only partially understood or partially learned, retention is low.

Although it is not desirable to retain all that is learned, the fact remains that not only too much knowledge is lost, but that sometimes the essential elements of a situation are never learned at all. It may not be possible to train retentive ability, but it is possible for the teacher to use certain procedures which will help pupils toward better retention than would otherwise be possible. The following points should be kept in mind:

Whole Situations

1. Learning involves whole situations, not isolated facts. Experiments appear to indicate that retention is high when the material or skill to be learned is definitely related to a whole. In most cases the teacher will need to point out this relationship to the students, making clear what the essential facts are which lead to the whole and of what the whole consists.

Orderly Arrangement of Material

2. Orderly arrangement of material is essential. The teacher will need to organize subject matter in such a way that proper sequences result. This procedure enables pupils to form correct associations. When these associations are connected with the material to be learned, they become meaningful and are more easily retained.

Overlearning

3. Overlearning significant materials favors retention. Pupils should not be content with "good enough" learning but should be encouraged to understand thoroughly and to overlearn significant materials in both mental and motor learning. In some instances it will be necessary for the teacher to point out and emphasize to the class the significant material to be learned lest time and effort be wasted.

Interpretation of Plateaus

Every teacher knows that learning does not progress at a uniform rate. At certain times pupils reach the state where little or no progress is made. For example, Jane is now able to make a buttonhole fairly well, but additional practice does not show any improvement in the buttonhole. She seems to have reached the limit of her capacity. The question arises, "Has she reached the limit of ability where no amount of practice changes the kind of buttonhole she can make? Or is there some other explanation for this inability to improve her technique in buttonhole making?"

Various explanations are offered for this apparent lack of progress. Some educators say that it is due to a decline in interest and

attention or to a lapse of effort after the original novelty of the task has worn off. Others claim that wrong habits and bad techniques used at the onset of the task may retard progress after a certain point has been reached. Still others regard the plateau period as a sort of breathing space in which pupils prepare themselves for new energy. This explanation would imply that the period was for the purpose of assimilating what has been learned, for sorting out the various elements, and for eliminating the superfluous ones. In short, pupils are gaining control of the situation before they proceed. Still other educators point out that habits are formed in cycles and that lower cycles must be completed before the higher ones can function.

Regardless of the explanation for the plateau, the teacher should recognize the fact that this situation exists all too often. The pupils may recognize plateaus, too, and for that reason a special effort should be made by both the teacher and the pupils to terminate the plateau period as quickly as possible. Few educators believe that the final limit of improvement is ever reached. Jane had probably not reached her limit of capacity in making buttonholes. The work of the teacher should then be to stimulate more interest in the work at hand and encourage new attempts toward a more successful achievement as well as observing the pupil to see whether or not any techniques should be changed.

Transfer of Learning

For many years one of the significant problems in education has been the question whether or not the effects of one type of mental activity can be transferred to another. Will a pupil who has learned that shiny surfaces reflect light while dull surfaces absorb and diffuse it, be able to apply this principle in selecting a dress for an oversized woman? Greek educators certainly thought this question could be answered in the affirmative and recommended studying arithmetic, music, and astronomy to improve thinking. Locke's doctrine of formal discipline in the eighteenth century was based on the assumption that systematic exercises or drill would improve various mental functions of learning in much the same way as exer-

cise would for the muscles. The more difficult the subject matter, the greater the mental training value, so it was believed. In fact, up until the latter part of the nineteenth century the theory of improving the mind by imposing upon it difficult tasks was a major influence in all school instruction.

It was not until experimentation took the place of speculation that doubts concerning this theory of formal discipline began to arise. Experiments were made in various fields to determine scientifically whether or not there was transfer of learning from one situation to another. The results of all experiments appear to invalidate the doctrine of formal discipline. That is, the idea that you can train some abstract quality like reasoning power and expect to make it function in any given situation has been repudiated. However, experiments have shown that transfer of learning does exist to varying degrees but only when certain factors are present.

HOW TRANSFER TAKES PLACE

Several theories have been advanced to explain the principle of transfer. One is the theory of identical elements which claims that when two activities or situations are similar in content, transfer takes place. The greater the number of identical elements, the greater the amount of transfer. These identical elements may be materials used, techniques followed, attitudes, ideas, or other factors. For example, according to this theory there should be more transfer from cake making to muffin making when muffins are made by the cake method than when they are made by the muffin method.

Another explanation for transfer is based on the theory of generalization. This theory places the onus of transfer on the individual instead of on identical elements and implies that there must be a conscious effort on the learner's part before transfer can occur. In short, when a pupil can formulate a general principle that can be applied to more than one situation, then transfer will take place. This does not mean that general principles should be learned as verbal statements and then be expected to apply to new situations. Rather should pupils discover experiences themselves and then make an attempt to generalize them. Laboratory work and proj-

ects of various kinds that begin with situations rather than principles are particularly effective in creating experiences which lead to the formulation of principles of generalization. In determining why a steam burn is worse than a water burn or how electric and gas refrigerators work or why an alcohol rub feels cool, pupils may be led to formulate the following principle: In changing from a solid to a liquid or a liquid to a gas the substance absorbs heat; when the change is reversed, the substance gives off heat.

Experiments have also shown that as a rule the higher the intelligence of a pupil, the greater will be the amount of transfer. Students of below average intelligence must be given very specific training directly related to the activities in which they are engaged. These pupils are seldom able to make generalizations which will apply in other situations but have to learn to meet a situation each time it occurs. The flexible use of past experience is greater with pupils of higher intelligence. This theory of generalization does not necessarily repudiate the theory of identical elements. It is not a question whether or not a situation has similar elements but whether or not these elements are recognized and made use of by the student.

Still another interpretation of the transfer theory rests on the assumption that if habits are flexible and the situation meaningful to the pupil, transfer is possible. Habits in this sense are thought of as patterns of behavior which can be used when new situations are presented. The process of transfer is facilitated by the ability of the learner to perceive differences between old and new situations. Flexibility of habit is believed to result when pupils have definite goals toward which they are working. Goals may change from time to time and vary from one learning situation to another, but flexibility is established as a result of directing thought and activity toward a specific goal. In a meaningful situation which implies that material to be learned is perceived as a whole and the relationship of the parts to the whole is seen, there is generally complete transfer. Goal-seeking procedure on which this book is based has attempted to utilize flexible habits and meaningful situations by relating the work of the classroom to the life experiences of the pupils.

HOW TO SECURE TRANSFER

There seems to be little doubt in the minds of educators that one of the chief aims of teaching is to facilitate the process of transfer. While it is doubtless true that scientific data on the transfer of learning are far from complete, the results of experimentation to date indicate that if the maximum amount of transfer is to be obtained, the techniques used in teaching are highly significant. From what has already been said, it should be clear that transfer of learning occurs only under certain conditions. These conditions are largely environmental and can be controlled to a great extent by the teacher. Some of them are listed below.

Inspiring the Pupil to Want to Learn

The teacher needs to guide the pupil to become aware of the learning situation. It is well recognized that transfer takes place only when the learner is active and when there is a conscious effort to learn. At times a group of pupils may be motivated to learn by such incentives as praise or reproof or by competition, but more often than not the desire to learn must come from an urge within the pupil. When external factors fail to motivate a pupil, then it becomes necessary for the teacher to acquaint herself with the background of the student, to evaluate individual ability and interests, and to make the learning situation at hand as meaningful as possible. Even when these conditions have been fulfilled, there is still wide variation in the amount of transfer that takes place among groups of students and even more variation among pupils themselves.

Helping Pupils Develop Suitable Attitudes

The teacher must help pupils develop suitable attitudes toward the learning process. These attitudes include honesty, suspended judgment, fair-mindedness, a discriminating taste, and other characteristics which would apply directly or indirectly to many situations. For example, it is just as important to develop correct attitudes toward homemaking as it is to learn specific skills in routine tasks within the home. Even more important is it necessary for the teacher to develop attitudes on the part of pupils toward

a belief in themselves. If pupils are aware of their successes and failures and share in the evaluation of their achievement, then will they acquire confidence in their ability to succeed in whatever situation they may be placed. Correct attitudes and ideals make possible broad applications that would otherwise be lacking.

Pointing Out Relationships

The teacher must provide experiences which make pupils aware of relationships between one learning situation and another. Unless she points out to pupils relationships among different fields of subject matter or unless she teaches them to look for such relationships themselves, the relationships will very often not be perceived. For example, the class may have carried on experiments to determine the most satisfactory method of washing dishes which have contained syrup, raw egg, flour, or grease. Shortly afterward the group may be trying to determine why it is difficult to sterilize milk bottles and other utensils in hard water or to determine what they should know regarding the selection and use of toilet soap in hard water. The teacher will probably need to help the class see that the same science principle is applicable in the three situations: namely, that the amount of a solid dissolved depends upon the kind of dissolving substance or solvent and its temperature.

Guiding Pupils in Developing Flexible Habits

In a rapidly changing world pupils must learn to develop flexible habits which may be changed as the situation demands. Fixed habits are apt to produce only those reactions which were learned when the habit was formed. Real progress in learning consists in combining old habits with new ones in such a way that they will serve to meet a variety of situations. For example, habits connected with planning the use of time in the kitchen should be flexible enough not only to be adaptable to new situations in the kitchen but also to be applied in the planning of time in other home, school, and community experiences.

strong bonds of affection with the lost parent, tend to show resentment toward a stepparent. Doubts may arise as to whether or not they will be loved and accepted by the new parent, and this often leads to unpleasant relationships within the family group. When the double family exists, children are torn between two sets of parents competing with one another for the love of the children. It is not difficult to see why peace and harmony cannot reign in either family. Typical adolescent questions concerning the broken home situation are:

> Do you think that a stepmother or a stepfather can take the place of a real parent?
>
> Do you think that a father should remarry if his children are old enough to help him?
>
> Should a stepmother or stepfather rule the children?

Unsatisfactory relations between the children. Still another reason for family conflicts is the relationship of children to each other. Some of the trouble is due to jealousy which may arise from unfavorable comparisons of one child with another or favoritism shown by parents or even teachers. Research indicates that the oldest child is more likely to be jealous.[1] Although first children may be trained and psychologically prepared for the advent of brothers and sisters, they do not always gracefully accept the addition of other members to the family group and often, perhaps unconsciously on their part, bear resentment well into the adolescent period. Jealousy, of course, is very apt to lead to quarreling. It is a natural thing for children to quarrel occasionally since children of various ages have different interests and attitudes. A limited amount of quarreling helps boys and girls to look out for their own interests and is valuable in teaching the technique of "give and take," provided that the clashes can be settled by the children themselves. But if it has to be settled by parents and if it becomes a source of annoyance to everyone in the family, quarreling may lead to serious problems. Typical adolescent questions in this area are:

[1] B. M. Ross, "Some Traits Associated with Sibling Jealousy in Problem Children," *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, 1931, pp. 364–378.

really tires pupils but that lagging interest and restlessness makes them feel tired. Sitting in the same position for several hours may cause some of the muscles to become tired, but what really causes a lack of efficiency is the monotony of the situation. This is one of the reasons that variety in class procedure has been advocated since it is believed that frequent changes in activity tend to eliminate to a great extent the feeling of being tired.

Real Fatigue

Some pupils, of course, experience real fatigue in the classroom. They are weary, listless, and unable to concentrate; they slump in their seats, look unhappy, complain of being tired, or manifest other evidence of disorganized behavior. Once the symptoms of real fatigue are recognized, care should be taken to ascertain the causes and plan remedial treatment. Sometimes the causes are due to physical defects, nutritional factors, loss of sleep, or the result of fear and worry. Some pupils spend so much time and energy outside of school taking dancing or music lessons or in entertaining that they are fatigued much of the time. In many communities pupils work for their room and board or do odd jobs after school hours to earn spending money with a subsequent loss in school achievement due to real fatigue. This type of activity is to be commended and even encouraged but only for pupils who are physically capable of keeping up in their studies and holding a job at the same time. In some cases fatigue can be avoided by carefully planning a time schedule with the pupils and possibly with the parents. However, pupils who appear to fatigue easily should be encouraged to confine all their efforts to school work if possible.

INFLUENCE OF THE TIME OF DAY

There has been much controversy over the relative efficiency in performance at different hours of the day. A prevalent belief has existed among teachers that for maximum efficiency the most difficult subjects should be scheduled for the beginning of the day while the minds of the pupils are fresh. Various experiments, however, have shown this assumption to be false. Abilities fluctuate

very little throughout the school day, and if anything, there is a slight tendency to do better work at nearly every other hour than the beginning of the day. If this is true, and considerable evidence tends to point that way, why then is there a marked slump in efficiency in so many classrooms as the day progresses? The answer to this question lies in the attitude of the pupils and even the teachers toward school work. In most cases the school program is not of sufficient interest to maintain a high degree of efficiency over a long period. Furthermore, as the day passes, pupils get a mind-set that is opposed to afternoon classes. They begin to think about what they will do after school hours with the result that alertness and interest toward the work at hand diminish. The teacher's task of maintaining efficiency throughout the school day becomes a practical matter of motivation.

LOSS OF SLEEP

Sleep is an important factor in maintaining efficiency in learning, but it is difficult to set standards of the amount needed by pupils of various ages because of individual differences. Young children need more sleep than adolescents, while all ages who are below par physically require more than normal individuals. Many adolescents believe that they can do school work efficiently even though they stay up late night after night, and this is true to some extent. Adolescents as a group have remarkable physical stamina and unlimited vitality, but according to medical standards they still need nine or nine and a half hours of sleep, which is more than many of them get. The many physical changes that occur during the adolescent period, the increasing number of interests, and emotional experiences — all require good hygienic habits. Loss of sleep over an extended period of time brings on fatigue which is bound to retard efficient learning in the long run. Adolescents may be unaware of this fact, and for this reason the teacher will need to take an active part in guiding adolescents toward a well-planned program which includes the necessary amount of sleep.

ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS

Sometimes poorly ventilated, overheated, or improperly lighted classrooms cut down the efficiency of learning. The results of various investigations have shown that pupils adjust themselves rather rapidly to extreme changes in temperature and that when motivation is high it is possible to learn as well when the weather is hot as when it is cool, when it is moist or dry as when it is humid. However, teachers are advised not to keep activity at a maximum rate for too long a period under extreme conditions since harm is believed to result. Optimum room conditions are urged whenever possible: 68°–70° F., 50 per cent humidity, and a circulation of 45 feet of pure air per minute for each pupil. Bright glaring lights, highly polished surfaces, or glittering objects around the room should be avoided since they fatigue the eye muscles and thus retard efficiency. Insufficient lighting is bad, but too much is even worse. Soft indirect lighting is considered most desirable. In considering environmental conditions the point to remember is that efficiency in learning fluctuates not so much because of the effects of poor conditions but because of the variation in motivation and interest. Most educators now believe that one of the best ways of maintaining a high level of efficiency is to make the classroom as pleasant and cheerful as possible so that pupils will enjoy being there. Giving pupils a share in making the room attractive will help to arouse and sustain interest in the surroundings and will go a long way in creating an optimum setting for the learning process. Further information on what constitutes attractive surroundings in homemaking will be found in Chapter 13, "Livable Homemaking Rooms."

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What would you suggest for each of the following classroom problems?
   a. The teacher has repeatedly asked her class to use thimbles when sewing by hand. When she reminds them of it, most of the class use thimbles, but if she neglects to suggest it, only two or three girls who have formed the habit at home use their thimbles.
   b. A class of junior-high-school girls seemed to have great difficulty sewing by hand. The teacher wondered if it would have been better to plan simple articles requiring machine sewing in the main.
   c. At school Mary has been taught to cook potatoes in a small amount of boiling salted water; but at home both she and her mother put them on to cook in a large amount of warm water, draining off the extra liquid after the potatoes are cooked. The teacher is impatient with the fact that Mary cannot seem to practice correct vegetable cookery at school.
2. Discuss the reasons for and against the statement, "Artificial motivation such as honor rolls and prizes have no legitimate place in modern education."
3. In teaching homemaking, in what instances would you regard the trial-and-error method as an uneconomical procedure to employ to any great extent?
4. When several students complain that they do not see much sense in what they are doing in class, is more emphasis needed on "whole" learning or on "part" learning? When students seem to have a general idea of what they are doing but are weak on details, which type of learning probably needs more emphasis?
5. If the class has learned the science involved in the difference in measure of melted and solid fat, how would you transfer this training to the problem of making popovers?
6. Give several illustrations — from your own experience if possible — in which transfer of training seemed to occur and several situations in which one would have expected transfer but it failed to appear. What do you believe was the chief difference between the "successful" and "unsuccessful" cases?

8

Understanding Adolescents

Begin then by studying your pupils better; for most assuredly you do not at present understand them.

ROUSSEAU

PROBABLY NO TERM in the English language has been as little understood or as genuinely misinterpreted as that of "the adolescent period." Some educators believe that adolescence is a stage of development no more significant than any other period, while others have magnified and dramatized its importance to the extent of making it appear as an abnormal phenomenon. Although scientific knowledge of adolescent behavior is perhaps less extensive than that of any other stage of life, the fact remains that every segment of development in the life of a child is so interrelated, and therefore so important, that none should be neglected or unduly magnified. It is a comparatively simple matter for adults to view the world through the eyes of a small child, but far more difficult to comprehend the seemingly complex patterns of behavior which manifest themselves so assertively at the teen-age period. Probably a complete understanding of human nature will never be attained, but since one of the chief goals of education is the optimum development of each individual, every teacher should make a special effort to acquire a comprehensive knowledge and a patient understanding of the pupils with whom she comes in contact. For most homemaking teachers this means the teen-age or adolescent group.

GROWTH PATTERNS IN ADOLESCENCE

It is, of course, impossible to find a definite turning-point which marks off adolescence from that of the preceding period, since all

development is a continuous process in which each period merges imperceptibly into the next. Adolescence is a natural culmination of previous development and as such represents progress toward adult maturity. Although arbitrary distinctions are often made between one growth period and that of another, all growth is interrelated to the extent that no one phase of development wholly predominates at any given time. As a rule, physical and intellectual changes go hand in hand, paralleled in most instances with emotional and social development which tend to keep pace with bodily modifications. However, in order that the homemaking teacher may understand how each factor contributes toward the total growth pattern, adolescence is referred to as a period of physical, emotional, social, and intellectual growth during which individuals of a certain age level, usually between twelve and twenty-one, exhibit certain characteristic types of behavior in facing certain relatively common problems.

PHYSICAL GROWTH

On the physical side the period of adolescence is marked by the maturation of various parts of the body and by changes in the glandular system. Every teacher should be aware of these physiological changes because of the profound influence they exert upon the personality and behavior of each pupil. For example, it is well known that physical growth for girls and boys does not progress at a parallel rate. In general, girls between the ages of eleven and fourteen mature more rapidly than do boys of the same age, who do not begin to show acceleration in growth until they are about thirteen or fourteen.

For the girls the world soon becomes sharply divided into masculine and feminine aspects. This is further accentuated by changes in bodily form which often cause adolescent girls much embarrassment and distress. Many hesitate to walk across the room or to rise for a recitation. Some go on rigid diets in an effort to retard growth while others attempt to satisfy an unusual craving for food by overindulgence in sweets. To many girls these changes, unless accepted as a natural counterpart of the developmental process, give rise to fear and bewilderment which if not dispelled often lead to undesirable patterns of behavior.

Boys, also, react profoundly to bodily changes in adolescence. At about thirteen or fourteen years of age an acceleration in organic development may occur very rapidly, accompanied by a ravenous appetite, by fluctuations of the voice, the growing of a beard, and the breaking out of the skin on the face. Almost over night a boy becomes taller and stronger than his mother and nearly as large as his father. Unaccustomed to this size and strength, his movements are not well co-ordinated. He is awkward and gauche and often acts like a bull in a china shop. The difficulty is further accentuated by the fact that his physical development may not coincide with that of his companions. This tends to make him feel that he is different from others and that perhaps something is wrong with him. These physiological changes are emotionally disturbing to the average boy who, as a rule, receives little or no explanation of their significance from his parents and seldom any assistance from the school. It is no wonder that bizarre behavior in the classroom often results.

EMOTIONAL GROWTH

The emotional pattern of adolescence is, of course, closely allied to the physiological development which exerts a profound influence on the nervous system. The task of adjusting one's thoughts and feelings to the bodily changes which occur and of integrating them with social experiences produces more or less tension. As long as the tension exists, the individual is in an emotional state. Eventually some way must be found to relieve this emotional tension. When young children become highly emotional they strike out immediately, have temper tantrums, or cry loudly. Adolescents have more subtle ways of handling the situation.

One of the characteristics of adolescence is extreme fluctuation in behavior, commonly called moods. Daydreaming becomes a natural occurrence, yet may suddenly be replaced by the serious pursuit of useful interests. Overdependency on adults often persists along certain lines while independent attitudes sometimes occur when least expected. There are alternations between brief intervals of absorption in hobbies or with immediate personal interests, on the one hand, and of more sustained interests in intellectual

pursuits on the other. The tendency to resort to tears is more frequent with girls than with boys, but illness is widely used in both groups as a means not only of avoiding and escaping pressing responsibilities but as an attention-getting device as well. To many teachers this seemingly anomalous behavior is baffling, to say the least.

The emotional development also involves making a heterosexual adjustment. This simply means that looking forward to adulthood and eventually to married life, adolescents are interested in developing relationships with those of the opposite sex. Until middle adolescence there is a tendency to fall in and out of love. Both boys and girls like to experiment, and short periods of attachment to different people are a normal counterpart of emotional development. In this way young people learn to evaluate different personalities — a procedure which helps them to set up ideals of mating and marriage.

Sometimes, of course, heterosexual adjustment is slow. Various barriers prevent what is considered a normal development in adolescence. Parental restrictions often prohibit social relationships with the opposite sex. Occasionally a highly emotional attachment of a boy toward his mother may keep him from becoming interested in girls his own age. Frequently a girl is reluctant to face her rôle as a woman and shuns boy companionship. Since her emotions need some outlet, it may take the form of a crush on a teacher or an older girl. These are situations of which every teacher should be aware and be prepared to meet.

Contrary to what might be expected, adolescents tend to enjoy being emotionally unstable and often seek exciting stimuli. They attend thrilling movies, exceed the speed limit in the family car, and take delight in various forms of aggressive behavior which run into conflict with the law or fall just short of it. These methods of stimulating and releasing emotion, while satisfactory to many adolescents, do not always meet socially accepted standards of conduct. It is vitally important, therefore, that adults, especially teachers, be aware of the necessity not only of guiding adolescents to relieve tension along more acceptable channels of behavior, but of teaching them to control their emotions as well. In fact many

educators believe that one criterion of maturity is the ability to bear a certain amount of tension and to release it only at a suitable time.

SOCIAL GROWTH

The period of adolescence is also marked by a definite preoccupation with social affairs which involves an attempt on the part of adolescents to establish desirable and satisfying personal relationships not only with their own age group but with adults as well. The urge for social approval becomes great at this time. Popularity with the "crowd" and ability to make friends are considered important goals. Also there occurs an acute awareness of social conventions and customs to which suitable adjustments need to be made if harmonious relationships are to be maintained. At the same time, adolescents, preferring to work out their own social problems and to manage their own affairs, tend to disdain the advice of adults and to avoid those who appear too critical of their social activities. These are natural reactions to the constant struggle of growing up and achieving independence.

INTELLECTUAL GROWTH

On the intellectual side, learning to reason things out for oneself is a vital aspect of adolescent growth. There also seems to be increased ability to comprehend subject matter, to perfect motor and mechanical skills, and to increase speed of performance. This may be due to the accumulated knowledge acquired during the preadolescent years and to the integration of this knowledge with experience, but the fact remains that there is rapid intellectual development during adolescence. Past and future experiences take on a new significance as attitudes and ideas undergo change. There is a tendency to debate various abstract issues involving marriage, religion, forms of government, and other subjects, in an effort to evaluate reality. A question frequently asked is "Where do we go from here?" and an attempt to answer it gradually leads to the formulation of a philosophy of life. This philosophy not only involves an appraisal of personal assets and liabilities and temporary plans for the future, but usually includes some understanding of the

values of living by which personal happiness may be integrated with the happiness and welfare of a democratic society.

An increase in cultural interests and in creative activities is also a characteristic pattern of adolescence. Practical realities and common sense values gradually replace imaginative pursuits. The abundance of adolescent poems, stories, and drawings are outward manifestations of an intellectual urge to interpret and to evaluate one's own personality. They may also represent attempts to solve inner conflicts and to minimize strong emotional drives. This means that the intellectual development of adolescents needs individual consideration, especially from the teacher, if a comprehensive understanding of adolescent growth is to be maintained.

The Problems of Adolescents

One of the best ways of understanding young people is to comprehend the various problems which confront them during the adolescent period. These problems are particularly important to high-school teachers because they represent an accumulation of all types of behavior tendencies, intensified and diversified as never before. Although teachers are beginning to realize that conflicts between basic urges and obstacles that prevent their satisfaction are a normal part of the growth process, many are not yet aware that educational programs must fit themselves to the growth processes of the pupils if optimum training and guidance are to result.

Possibly the most reliable index to teen-age problems can be obtained from adolescents themselves. Standard questionnaire studies, adolescent diaries, case studies, and "projective" techniques all yield considerable data which when carefully analyzed by adults have indicated definite general trends. When these trends are very characteristic of an age or a sex group, their general meaning may be significant when applied to individuals in these groups. For the most part the persistent conflicts of adolescents appear to center around three areas all of which are closely interrelated: (1) personal problems; (2) family problems; (3) community problems.

PERSONAL PROBLEMS

There is, of course, wide variation in the personal problems which confront the individual girl and boy in the junior- and senior-high-school period. Although there is some difference in the type of problem girls and boys have to face, the difference is not as great as it would seem to be. Because of our long-established custom of "protecting" adolescent girls from the world at large, environmental pressures tend to intensify and magnify their problems to a far greater extent than those of adolescent boys who have rarely been subject to such rigid control. Probably the matter sifts down to one of degree rather than actual difference in content. Basically both groups are very much interested in themselves as individuals and tend to center most of their attention on matters which deal with various phases of personality development.

The results of studies as to the relative importance of adolescent problems tend to indicate that from the student viewpoint the greatest number of conflicts center around the area of social development while from the teacher's standpoint emotional difficulties seem to predominate. This difference in emphasis is probably due to the importance which adults are apt to place on emotional control. Most adolescents are unaware of or refuse to recognize their inadequacies along this line even though emotional pressures probably give rise to many social adjustment problems. Some of the personal problems reported by pupils are listed below.

Difficulties of Social Adjustment

Inability to make friends:

How can I become more popular?

I wish I could make friends. I feel like crowding in a corner when people are around.

How can I ever get over being shy and awkward?

Ignorance of social customs:

How should I go about holding a conversation with a person much older than I?

How does one act at a tea?

Should you dance with every boy who asks you?

If a girl goes with a boy and he hasn't much money, is it all right for the girl to pay some of the way?

My best friend has poor table manners. How can I suggest to her that she do something about them?

How can I advise a certain person not to act so "stuck-up"?

Inability to get along with members of the opposite sex:

How can I get over being self-conscious with boys?

How can I get over feeling ill at ease when I am with a girl?

Boys don't seem to be interested in me. What is wrong?

Difficulties regarding matters of personal appearance:

Should a girl of my age wear make-up?

What should I do for oily hair?

How can I keep my clothes from smelling of the barn?

My fingernails break off all the time. What should I do?

How can I look well when my family cannot afford to buy me good clothes?

Difficulties of Emotional and Mental Development

Lack of knowledge concerning love affairs:

At what age should one fall in love?

Is fifteen too young to have "a steady"?

How do I know when I am in love?

How can I improve my boy friend's manners?

Is a boy or girl justified in breaking a date if they have quarreled?

How can one discourage a boy who is not a gentleman from insisting that a girl date him?

Should a girl date a man ten years older than she is?

Inability to determine satisfactory moral and religious standards:

Should high-school girls smoke?

Should a boy respect a girl who smokes?

What stand should I take on drinking and petting?

Is it wrong to tell a "white" lie?

Why do some people condemn dancing?

Should people of different religious faiths marry?

Unreliability of judgment:

I should like to have dates on school nights. Mother doesn't think I should but said I could decide. I am not sure what to do.

My parents want me to go to college, but I am not sure I want to. How can I decide?

Apprehension regarding money matters:

I haven't any money to buy material for my clothing class.

I need spending money. What should I do to earn it?

Should I take money with me when I go on a date?

How much money is a boy expected to spend on a girl when he takes her out?

Incomplete knowledge of health standards:

Is it necessary to eat food you do not like even if you are told it is good for you?

What can I do for a bad complexion?

How can I reduce?

My family likes a lot of starchy foods. How can I get them to eat more of other things?

Inability to make adequate scholastic achievement:

I study hard, but my marks are low. What can I do to improve them?

How do you account for the fact that I do poorly on tests while my other work is good?

My mother says my marks would be better if I learned to concentrate. How does one go about learning that?

Lack of knowledge concerning educational and vocational matters:

I need help in making application for a summer job.

What can I do after finishing high school if I haven't money to help get further education?

Should I follow the vocation my parents recommend, or do what I really want to do?

FAMILY PROBLEMS

Probably the home environment with its powerful interplay of human relationships gives rise to more problems than any other

area. Part of the trouble is due to economic changes which have modified the functions of the home, creating a shift from autocratic paternalism to more democratic standards within the family circle; but most of the difficulty comes from parental ignorance concerning human nature and human relationships. It is the emotional relationships between parents and children which create much of the difficulty. Unless these relationships lead to good emotional adjustment fairly early in the life of a child, unresolved problems of childhood are going to be carried over into the adolescent period where they become intensified and magnified as never before. Although the teacher is not directly responsible for the home environment of her pupils, she must understand what factors in the home produce problems that make their appearance in the school environment. She needs to realize not only that parents and children must maintain harmonious relationships but that children's relations to each other are important and that sometimes the whole situation is complicated by the presence of grandparents, relatives, or boarders who may be a regular part of the family group. At the present time more and more homemaking teachers are being called upon to interpret parent-child relationships and to offer guidance on problems that deal essentially with home conditions. For this reason their knowledge on the subject should be as complete as possible.

Reasons for Unsatisfactory Family Relationships

Young people may wonder why, after all these years of civilization, the relationships between parents and children are filled with so many sorrows, disappointments, and misunderstandings. Parents seem to forget that they were ever young and tend to think that the younger generation manifests hopeless tendencies. Adolescents often ask the questions:

Why are parents so narrow-minded?

Do you think we are more immodest, unmoral, and reckless than our parents were?

Why do parents say you shouldn't do this and that because they never did it?

Parental resistance to change. One of the chief reasons underlying unsatisfactory parent-child relationships lies in the fact that as people grow older they become more settled in their habits and tend to resist change. After opinions and attitudes are formed, it is not easy for adults to modify them. The feelings and emotions which they experienced during the teen age fade away and are forgotten. It is difficult for parents to project themselves into adolescent situations because, as adults, their ideas have changed. Things that seem vitally important to young people are no longer important to parents who look at life from an adult viewpoint. Long-continued cares and responsibilities of parents have dulled the imagination and dimmed the memory of youth. One of the strange things about many adults is the fact that while they accept new machinery of all kinds for their physical comfort and well-being, they fail to take into account that moral and social standards change as much as material standards. Everything that young people do which deviates from what the older generation was taught, seems to them fundamentally unsound, although it is generally conceded that many things which were considered immodest, immoral, and reckless when parents were young, have now come to be thought of as quite natural and all right in the next generation. Many parents, however, have failed to take into account the fact that they are living in a changing world and that very few things remain constant for long.

Molding of children's careers. For generations parents have taken an active part in planning the lives of their children and molding their careers. They look back into their lives and see what they think were mistakes — marrying too young, choosing the wrong mate, not enough education, and the like. They strongly feel that if these mistakes are pointed out to their sons and daughters, it will save them a great deal of trouble. And so they offer a lot of advice which adolescents more often than not refuse to accept. What makes the situation even more complicated is the fact that many parents attempt to live over again in the lives of their children experiences and desires which may or may not have been realized when the parents themselves were young. For example, if a mother had a strong desire in her

girlhood to take music lessons and never realized this ambition, she is apt to insist that her daughter take music lessons without considering the girl's wishes or the fact that she may not have musical ability. Perhaps the father is a lawyer or a doctor who insists that his son follow in his footsteps regardless of whether or not the boy is fitted for that profession. This tendency on the part of parents to identify themselves with their children and to mold their careers in terms of their own experiences causes a great deal of unhappiness and gives rise to many problems.

Unsatisfactory parental relations. Still another factor causing problems of adolescence is unsatisfactory parents' relations toward each other. Oftentimes parents have not solved their own problems. They are so dissatisfied or discontented with life that by the time their children reach the teen age and begin to understand what is going on about them, the home atmosphere is so unwholesome that parents and children never can reach an understanding of each other. Antagonism between parents is all too common and often leads to constant bickering and quarreling in the presence of the children. Some parents make a genuine attempt to hide conflicts from their children, but no matter how careful they are, children, especially older ones, can sense emotional tensions and inharmonious parental relationships and as a result develop feelings of insecurity and inferiority. Adolescents often ask:

> How can I stop my parents from quarreling?
>
> If parents quarrel, do you think their children can avoid taking sides?
>
> My father treats my mother very cruelly. What can I do to remedy the situation?

Sometimes antagonism between parents leads to separation or divorce. Homes broken by divorce or by death of one or both parents do not necessarily give rise to problems, but they do produce a greater proportion of maladjusted children than other homes. The situation is often complicated by the remarriage of one or both of the parents. If the children are young, less opposition or resistance to a new parent occurs, but older children who have built up

strong bonds of affection with the lost parent, tend to show resentment toward a stepparent. Doubts may arise as to whether or not they will be loved and accepted by the new parent, and this often leads to unpleasant relationships within the family group. When the double family exists, children are torn between two sets of parents competing with one another for the love of the children. It is not difficult to see why peace and harmony cannot reign in either family. Typical adolescent questions concerning the broken home situation are:

> Do you think that a stepmother or a stepfather can take the place of a real parent?
>
> Do you think that a father should remarry if his children are old enough to help him?
>
> Should a stepmother or stepfather rule the children?

Unsatisfactory relations between the children. Still another reason for family conflicts is the relationship of children to each other. Some of the trouble is due to jealousy which may arise from unfavorable comparisons of one child with another or favoritism shown by parents or even teachers. Research indicates that the oldest child is more likely to be jealous.[1] Although first children may be trained and psychologically prepared for the advent of brothers and sisters, they do not always gracefully accept the addition of other members to the family group and often, perhaps unconsciously on their part, bear resentment well into the adolescent period. Jealousy, of course, is very apt to lead to quarreling. It is a natural thing for children to quarrel occasionally since children of various ages have different interests and attitudes. A limited amount of quarreling helps boys and girls to look out for their own interests and is valuable in teaching the technique of "give and take," provided that the clashes can be settled by the children themselves. But if it has to be settled by parents and if it becomes a source of annoyance to everyone in the family, quarreling may lead to serious problems. Typical adolescent questions in this area are:

[1] B. M. Ross, "Some Traits Associated with Sibling Jealousy in Problem Children," *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, 1931, pp. 364–378.

Is it natural for brothers and sisters to quarrel?

Can anything be done to keep from fussing with your sister who always gets her own way?

I am very jealous of my brother and sister although I don't seem to have any real reason to be. What shall I do?

My sister runs home and tells every little thing I do, and then my mother has it in for me. Jean does things just as bad or even worse than I do. I just hate her.

Do I always have to give up to my younger brothers and sisters?

My little brother is always snooping around when my boy friends call. It embarrasses me. How can I get rid of him?

Should an older brother be forced to take his sister places?

Unsatisfactory relations between children and relatives or other individuals in the home. A minor source of adolescent conflict but none the less significant is the presence of relatives or boarders who seem to be a permanent part of the family group. Some children resent having these people around and never accept them as members of the immediate family. Perhaps the reason for this is based on feelings of jealousy and insecurity which arise from the presence of "outsiders." Adolescents frequently ask:

Why does my grandmother have to live with us?

Do you think a person who boards at your home has any right to interfere in your affairs?

Everyone in the family bows down to my grandfather. Personally I think he's an old fogy. I wish he would leave. What can I do about it?

Inadequate parental control. Probably the most important source of adolescent conflict comes from the attitude which parents assume toward authority. Somewhere between the ages of twelve and twenty-one, adolescents must change from individuals dependent upon their parents to adults who are able to decide things for themselves. Emancipation from the family is usually left to the discretion of the parents, many of whom attempt to postpone the event as far into the adolescent period as possible. While it is undoubtedly true that present-day society has prolonged the period of economic dependence for the vast majority of adolescents, the fact remains that supervisory control should

begin to decrease long before the adolescent period begins. As a rule most parents who attempt to make decisions and solve problems for their adolescent sons and daughters, have overprotected them when they were small. Specifically such parents probably gave their children excessive care, watched them constantly, prevented them from taking the slightest risks, chose their playmates, and gave them little opportunity to make decisions for themselves, with the result that when the teen age was reached, the children passively accepted and expected the same amount of protection as a natural course or flung off the yoke with a bang. It is not necessary to describe the causes of overprotection, or underprotection for that matter, on the part of parents since these causes involve complex psychological factors. It is sufficient for the average homemaking teacher to know that such conditions exist and that they are the basis for many adolescent problems.

For example, take the matter of friendships. Two of the most frequent questions asked by adolescents are:

> Is it fair for parents to insist upon choosing their children's friends?
> Is it right to disobey your parents when they disapprove of your friends?

Parents who have always been careful about their children's playmates are usually the ones who insist upon choosing friends for their adolescent sons and daughters. Many times parents have excellent reasons for not encouraging certain friendships, but if they are arbitrary about the matter, conflicts are bound to arise. Parents should realize that choosing friends is a part of adolescent development. Mistakes may be made and choices may often be unwise, but most adolescents will profit by their mistakes and learn to judge people more accurately as time goes on.

The same situation applies to money matters. Adolescents are confused as to just what their financial status should be. They frequently ask:

> Do you think young people should have an allowance?

Parental opinions range all the way from the belief that children should be protected against economic pressures to the view of the

progressive type of parents who begin giving their children a small allowance when they start to school and who gradually increase the amount year by year so that as adolescents their children are purchasing a large proportion of the things that they need. But even with an allowance questions arise:

> Should I be expected to work for my allowance?
>
> I claim that I am entitled to spend my allowance as I wish. Am I right?

In families where an allowance is not given or an additional amount is desired, boys and girls earn money outside of school hours. The question then arises:

> Have young people who earn their own money a right to spend it as they like?

The whole problem of parental control today is such that it cannot be evaluated in specific terms of right and wrong techniques. The solution is not one of merely relinquishing authority as children approach adolescence, but involves the building up of a sympathetic understanding of human nature on the part of parents so that as the shift is made from dependence to independence, parental control will take the form of advice and co-operative planning, and a sharing of responsibilities between parents and their children.

COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

People of every age are affected to a great extent by the community in which they live, but the accelerated speed of modern life, the congestion of population in large cities, and the scarcity of opportunities in rural areas are forces which particularly affect adolescents. As interests and ideas begin to broaden and as increased growth demands new outlets for expansion, the average adolescent begins to spend much less time in the home and more in the community. The small, compact family group now becomes insufficient for adolescent needs. Community relationships take the place of family relationships as adolescents begin to widen their friendships and to view life on a much larger scale. As parental

authority declines, community influences become more and more powerful in controlling adolescent behavior. Gradually adolescents begin to find out for themselves what the community has to offer in the way of interests, choice of vocations, and recreational facilities. Realizing that sooner or later as potential wage earners and voting citizens they should become a part of the community itself, they want social recognition on a mature status from their elders. This they generally fail to get. Communities tend to make it difficult for most adolescents to compete with adults in business. Instead they urge prolonged training and education and in many cases condone inactivity. Naturally adolescents resent this attitude, and conflicts result. Some of the most common problems are mentioned.

Conflicting Standards of Conduct

Almost everyone realizes that standards of all kinds are constantly changing. What confuses adolescents and produces serious problems are conflicting standards of conduct which make it impossible for young people to know which of several ways is the right one or how to make clear-cut moral decisions. One kind of conduct appears acceptable in one environment but is condemned in another. Many adolescents have three sets of standards — one for the home, one for the church, another for the "crowd." And the strange thing about it all is that they are seldom mixed. Adolescents frequently say: "But I seem to be such a different person when I'm in a different group." It is also interesting to note how standards of conduct have changed over a period of years. Values for adolescent boys have remained pretty much the same, but for girls revolutionary changes have taken place although girls still do not have as much freedom as boys. Many girls of twelve now want to be quiet and sedate, to be attractive in appearance, and to assume adult characteristics even to wearing long evening dresses. Fifteen-year-old girls frown upon prim and ladylike qualities but admire good sportsmanship, ability to organize parties involving both boys and girls, and a capacity for keeping activities lively. Girls also want to be fascinating and glamorous to boys long before they reach the age for marriage.

Some individual families have accepted these changes for adolescent girls, but many communities, especially the small ones, have a few critical faultfinding citizens who never had much pleasure in life and who seem to resent the idea or to be totally unaware of the fact that happiness is of paramount importance to one's welfare. Knowing that these citizens can make or break reputations, adolescents are genuinely disturbed and baffled about what course to pursue. They frequently ask such questions as these:

> Should young people be criticized by the neighbors because of the friends or company they keep?
>
> Do I have to listen to what people say about my stepping out or the clothes I wear?
>
> How can I get people to stop talking about me?
>
> I am worried over what people think about my sister's behavior.

Influence of Economic Status

Boys and girls both in junior and senior high school tend to separate into groups and to form intimate friendships which in senior high are often colored by racial prejudice. Young people have not yet learned to evaluate standards of worth and have a tendency to judge people in terms of the material things they possess and the social standing they maintain in the community. Girls, who are far less democratic in their social attitudes than boys, tend to be snobbish, but both groups form small cliques and insist upon working and playing with their intimate friends only. Friendships mean a lot to adolescents, and although friendships are not always based on family alliances and are not exclusively a matter of similar social backgrounds but result from identical interests and sympathetic personalities, the fact remains that for some reason or other all too many boys and girls are not accepted by any group. Adolescents from the lowest socio-economic levels who live under constant financial strain are sometimes discriminated against and as a result tend to develop feelings of inferiority and insecurity. Many of them lack poise and are often shy because they do not possess good clothes or attractive home surroundings and are not accepted by a group. These "outsiders" become sensitive

and resort to unwholesome behavior as a form of compensation. Adolescents often ask:

> Why do different types of girls stick together?
>
> If we haven't a lot of nice furniture, shall I still have a party at my home?
>
> My parents are very foreign. Sometimes I feel self-conscious about it. What can I do to overcome this feeling?

Lack of Recreational Facilities

Adolescents, when out of the home, must depend largely on the movies, automobiles, dance halls and poolrooms, and often less wholesome places for their amusement much of the time. While some of these forms of entertainment are not inherently bad in themselves, they do give rise to many conflicting situations. What to do with their leisure time is a universal problem for most adolescents. Those who are over sixteen and whose parents have cars want to drive despite the fact that most parents disapprove of the idea though they are unable to do much about it. Automobile driving would not be condemned by adults if it did not often lead to disastrous results which young people cannot foresee. Or consider the matter of movies. Practically all adolescents attend the movies regularly. There is no particular harm in this. It is one way of crystallizing points of view and desires and serves as a medium by which adolescents learn to evaluate many moral problems. Harm arises when the pictures create undesirable ideas, produce too intense emotional reactions, or present moral issues not in accordance with accepted standards of behavior. As a rule, most parents make earnest attempts to keep their adolescent sons and daughters from public poolrooms and dance halls, knowing only too well that such places offer little or no protection to young people. However, educators realize that unless provision is made for constructive types of entertainment, young people will naturally avail themselves of whatever types are found in the community. Adolescents ask these questions:

> Why doesn't our community have any recreational facilities, as for example, a recreational leader?
>
> Is it harmful to attend a public dance hall?
>
> Is the general run of movies educational?

How Adolescents Meet Their Problems

Adolescents use various techniques in attempting to overcome the obstacles which prevent them from adjusting to life situations. The techniques which are accepted by society and are therefore good lead to adjusted behavior; those not acceptable are poor and lead to maladjustment. Past experience, habits, and the pressure of the immediate environment determine what techniques an individual will use to gain certain ends. For example:

> Mary is an unattractive girl lacking personal charm, yet is desirous of social success. If she uses suitable techniques and can have the proper environment, she may accomplish her goal. Suitable techniques in this instance might include a comprehensive evaluation of her personal assets and liabilities followed by an earnest attempt on Mary's part to acquire more desirable traits of character and to improve her personal appearance. But at school Mary may become extremely shy and may refuse to act as hostess for her class who is entertaining a group of parents. An optimum environment would be one in which the homemaking teacher understood Mary's problem to the extent of encouraging Mary to build up confidence in her ability to become a successful hostess and ultimately to achieve social recognition.
>
> On the other hand, Mary may use undesirable techniques to achieve social success. She may not realize or refuse to recognize the fact that she lacks personal charm. When she does not receive attention from those about her, she may make all sorts of attempts to attract attention to herself by overdressing, by putting on too much make-up, by bragging, by being late to class, by creating unnecessary disturbances, etc. If the homemaking teacher does not understand Mary's problem, she may take her refusal to act as hostess as willful disobedience and may regard her whole pattern of behavior as that of a badly trained girl who has little possibility of becoming socially adjusted. This attitude on the part of the teacher creates an unfavorable environment for Mary, and as the gap between desire and achievement widens, Mary gradually becomes maladjusted.

The techniques which young children use to solve their problems generally take the form of overt emotional reactions such as temper tantrums, crying, screaming or kicking. As age increases, these

responses are somewhat modified. Bragging, swaggering, sulking, daydreaming, lying, and cheating are types of behavior especially common to preadolescents. Some of these techniques are, of course, carried over into the teen-age period, but as a rule adolescents resort to less obvious methods which permit them to avoid emotional situations if possible.

> Edna was caught cheating after failing several examinations. Investigation showed that in her preschool years Edna had marked temper tantrums whenever she was crossed. As she grew older she developed headaches when called upon to do anything that was difficult or that she particularly disliked. Although Edna's family came to realize she was "putting on an act" to avoid meeting responsibility, they were unable to cope with the situation with the result that Edna managed to get her own way most of the time. In junior high school Edna's friends were the athletic type who scorned ill health and who put a premium on physical fitness. It was obvious that Edna had to resort to a different technique than headaches to avoid unpleasant or difficult situations. She managed to avoid two scheduled examinations by being absent, giving as an excuse untruthful statements about being needed at home. When told after the second absence that all examinations missed must be made up, Edna substituted the technique of absentism and lying for that of cheating. An optimum environment which would lead to better techniques would include among other things an evaluation of Edna's mental status and provision for opportunities for successful achievement commensurate with the level of her ability. Otherwise even more undesirable techniques may be used and maladjustment might result.

As a rule the use of good techniques in solving problems involves not only a recognition on the part of adolescents of the source of their conflicts but implies ability to determine what factors contribute best toward an adequate solution. It means trying out first one technique then another until a suitable one is found. For example:

> Jean is a bright, attractive girl in junior high who wants to be popular. She is the only child of a wealthy couple who have given her everything she desired. The family lives in a restricted neighborhood in a city where Jean's father owns a large factory. Jean's friends have

been limited to a small group of children from her own social level, with the result that when she entered junior high she did not know how to make friends with other children. Jean was one of several candidates for class secretary but lost the election. This upset her considerably, and for some time she ignored everyone except her close friends. But Jean really wanted to be popular; so when the group in Homemaking I held a class picnic, Jean, without consulting anyone, brought along extra refreshments which she passed around with great ostentation. She seemed angry when certain members of the class refused to accept any of her contributions. A few weeks later, Jean tried out for the leading rôle in the class play but failed to get the part. She was heard to remark, "They've certainly got it in for me." After that Jean refused to participate in class discussions and did not attend any of the meetings of the two clubs to which she belonged. One day Jean happened to be at the scene of an accident and through prompt action was instrumental in preventing a fire. She was commended for this by the principal at the school assembly, and later on several of the students complimented Jean and said they felt they had misjudged her. After that Jean's attitude changed perceptibly. She became active but not aggressive. By the end of the school year she was quite popular with members of the class.

Adolescents who feel inadequate or who are aware of real deficiencies sometimes try to compensate by exerting unusual efforts to excel along some other line than the one in which they are deficient. It is not uncommon for a physically handicapped boy or girl to achieve outstanding intellectual success or for a mentally handicapped person to attain athletic prowess. Usually, however, adolescents with a real or an imaginary defect will try to conceal it by directing attention to what they wish might be the true situation. A boy, for example, who is afraid of physical combat will boast about his athletic prowess hoping that no one will call his bluff, or a girl who has difficulty making boy friends will brag about the large number of telephone calls she receives from her admirers. Life is full of such compensations, which are normal unless carried to the extreme. On the whole, a surprising number of adolescents solve their own problems. Many learn to recognize the fact that thwartings, discouragements, and even failures are inevitable in life. They learn to accept frustrations and to acquire a flexibility of

mind which makes it possible to meet difficult situations without an excess of emotion. They resolve as many problems as possible and learn to live with the others. But there is still a large number of adolescents who fumble around and seem to get nowhere. They are the ones who need special help, which must come from the home, the community at large, and the school in particular.

The Rôle of the Home

While it is probably true that unsatisfactory home conditions give rise to more adolescent problems than any other source, it is equally true that the home is still the most logical and effective agency to help adolescents, although it must solve some of its own problems before it can expect to guide adolescents in solving theirs. Any evaluation of family problems, however, should be dealt with far more extensively than space in this book will permit. Therefore, only those aspects of home life which can be modified through teacher-pupil-parent co-operation are discussed.

Homemaking teachers, who probably have more contacts with the home than any other group of teachers, have opportunities to suggest ways and means whereby parents can guide their children more effectively. Some of this can be done indirectly through the pupils themselves in conjunction with home experiences (see Chapter 12, "Enriching Home Experiences"); but many homemaking teachers who are on friendly terms with parents will be called upon directly to prescribe suitable techniques for helping adolescents. For this reason the following suggestions are recommended.

PARENTS AS CONFIDANTS

Teachers should encourage parents to act as confidants. Research indicates that the mother is the person most frequently chosen as a confidant by junior- and senior-high-school girls.[2] Other girls who would like to have chosen their mother failed to do so for the fol-

[2] Hazel M. Hatcher, *The Confidants of High School Senior Girls in Rural and Urban Centers* (unpublished Master's thesis, Iowa State College, 1933) and Charlotte Klyng, *Personal Problems and Confidants of Junior and Senior High School Girls of Two Urban Communities* (unpublished Master's thesis, Iowa State College, 1936).

can frequently obtain clues which may lead to the source of the difficulty.

DISHONESTY

This technique includes lying, cheating, stealing, and other forms of conduct not considered honest. Cheating perhaps is the most prominent and occurs more frequently than most teachers realize. Since it is well known that honesty is dependent among other things upon intelligence, home training, and adequate social adjustment, it is not surprising that honesty does not increase with age. In every classroom, especially at the adolescent level, there is always a group of retarded pupils who would do almost anything to keep pace with their classmates. These are the pupils from whom we may expect the largest proportion of dishonest behavior although there are always a certain number of average and even superior students who are also deceitful. For some reason, probably due to social motives, lying is more common among girls of adolescent age than among boys. It is easy for a girl to build up the habit of telling little white lies which she considers harmless but necessary in order to create an effect or to smooth over an unpleasant situation. On the other hand, stealing is probably more prevalent among boys than girls and usually occurs among children who have not yet learned the meaning of property rights. When it occurs at the adolescent level it is far more serious and is usually indicative of a serious maladjustment.

It must be kept constantly in mind that dishonesty symptoms are extremely varied and that a pupil may lie or cheat in one instance and not in another. In some instances adolescent girls have been known to steal money from one another but to be scrupulously honest with school funds. Much depends upon the particular situation in which the pupil is placed and the motives underlying the symptom itself. For example, if an exaggerated emphasis is placed on the importance of marks, then there is bound to be a feeling that dishonesty is justifiable to prevent failure. It is well known that in classes where the importance of marks is minimized and the all-around development of the pupil is stressed, fewer instances of dishonesty occur. In cases of lying, care should be taken not to make

authority should not be based on fear but should rest on the understanding that some restriction and control is necessary in order to bring about a more harmonious relationship between parents and their children and the society in which they live.

EDUCATION FOR PARENTS

Teachers should encourage parents to join parent-teacher associations and to take courses in child training and family relationships whenever they are available. Much of the present difficulty in reference to adolescent problems can be solved by parental education, which is slowly but surely increasing. Parents must be taught how to release control over their children, how to encourage self-reliance, self-confidence, and self-direction, and particularly how to increase responsibilities progressively so that by the time the children reach adolescence they have already made a good start toward developing the necessary characteristics which ultimately lead to successful independence and adult maturity. To be really effective, however, this education needs to start before marriage or at least early in married life. When parents have maintained a home of disharmony, jealousy, and animosity over a period of years and have failed to educate their children properly in respect to family relationships, they can scarcely be expected to deal adequately with adolescent problems. Various phases of adult education will be discussed at length in Chapter 16, "Adapting Homemaking to Meet the Needs of Different Groups."

PARENTS AND THEIR HOMES

Teachers should encourage parents to take pride in their homes. Adolescents will not stay at home unless the surroundings are reasonably attractive. Being ashamed of one's home causes more unhappiness and discontent than almost any other factor. Adolescent girls are probably more sensitive to drab and unattractive surroundings than adolescent boys who have been accustomed to seek entertainment outside the home environment. Although the physical conditions of most homes cannot be materially modified, the homemaking teacher can often suggest simple changes which will involve little expense but which will create an entirely different at-

mosphere. These changes can often be worked out as home experiences by the pupils themselves with little or no effort on the part of the parents.

The Rôle of the Community

A community can do much to help adolescents solve their problems, but progress in this direction will naturally be slow because of the more or less impersonal nature of communities in general. In the last two decades, however, many sections of the country have made considerable progress toward making the community a better place for boys and girls to live in. A recognized need for recreational facilities, for more adequate housing conditions, and for public libraries, museums, health clinics, and even juvenile courts is gradually gaining headway. Perhaps adolescents can do very little toward solving the many problems that are brought about by unwholesome community conditions, but they can learn to take an interest in their community through home experiences (see Chapter 12, "Enriching Home Experiences") with the view to bringing about a better relationship between the community and its young people.

Community problems, of course, are greatly accentuated by an emergency such as a war. During World War II older adolescents were given a mature status almost overnight while younger adolescents were expected to restrict their self-expression at an age when self-expression is very important. Many recreational facilities ceased to be available while community agencies of all kinds were forced to curtail their activities. Financial appropriations for anything except war necessities were at a standstill. Many adolescents left high school before graduating and took jobs that paid higher wages than their fathers received. But very few of these adolescents knew how to handle this sudden wealth. Younger adolescents who could not leave school became increasingly restless and disturbed by the restrictions which adult society attempted to impose upon them. Add to this the excitement of war news, the subsequent modification in attitude toward hatred and loss of life, and the breaking up of family groups as members went into the

armed services and women into industry, and it is not difficult to see that these circumstances accentuated the emotional tensions of adolescents who have trouble keeping their emotions under control even in normal times.

Meanwhile communities all over the country attempted to give young people certain civic responsibilities in an effort not only to keep them busy but to create an awareness and a realization that they were a part of the nation itself. Children of all ages were encouraged to collect scrap metal, tinfoil and paper, to buy defense stamps, to make airplane models, and to join the Junior Red Cross, the Scouts, and other clubs for young people.

In cases where these activities were made commensurate with abilities and were varied enough to keep boys and girls interested without imposing too much physical strain, they may have served a useful purpose in minimizing various adolescent conflicts. On the other hand, during a war or at any time in fact, activity alone can never solve adolescent problems. It may help to reduce tensions for the time being, but little is gained in the long run unless young people learn to build up wholesome attitudes toward their own future and the country in which they are to live. Both young and old will have to be taught that an emergency, such as a war, need not necessarily be totally destructive but that out of the chaos constructive benefits may eventually result. The burden of responsibility for fostering wholesome attitudes rests on our schools, our teachers, and our communities who will need more than ever to relate school work to life situations.

The Rôle of the Homemaking Teacher

Most educators agree that if adult maturity is to be achieved successfully, adolescents themselves must learn to solve their problems. Goal-seeking procedure, which involves co-operative teacher-pupil planning with parental participation whenever possible, is based on the assumption that teaching is a process of guiding and directing learning techniques so that the pupils' chances of successful achievement will be greater than would otherwise be possible. Learning to control basic urges and to make a satisfactory

adjustment to the many conflicts that arise during the adolescent period should be considered just as important a part of the growth process as acquiring knowledge and skills.

The field of homemaking, which deals with many personal phases of adolescent life, probably presents more opportunities for bringing about a better adjustment between pupils and their environment than does any other field. It also has splendid facilities for helping adolescents solve their problems, but until homemaking teachers take stock of these facilities and work out ways of putting them into efficient use, they remain potential assets only. The following points may suggest how teachers can use these facilities.

GOALS OF PERSONALITY GROWTH

The first step in helping adolescents to solve their problems is to understand and know them as individual personalities. This can probably best be done by relating classroom objectives to the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils and then with patience and sympathy attempting to guide personality development. This means setting up additional objectives in terms of personal worth, self-reliance, self-control, belongingness, sound mental health, and wholesome attitudes toward life in general. Training in acquiring emotional stability should not be left to chance, nor should instruction be delayed until an emotional crisis arises. A definite program should be set up as a part of the regular class work. For example, a unit in child training can stress how important it is for persons who are to care for young children to attain emotional stability. Likewise in a unit in foods, emotional control can be shown to be necessary for the proper digestion of some foods; and good mental health can be made just as important as physical fitness. The more objective the subject of emotions becomes, the easier it will be for adolescents to recognize and understand it.

Teachers' experiences indicate that young people understand the importance of personality development far better than outward manifestations would at first indicate. This is particularly true in reference to emotional problems dealing with sex. Each year more and more pupils are turning to the school for guidance along this line. Although it is sometimes difficult to incorporate sex educa-

tion as a part of the regular classroom work, due to the fact that so few teachers are trained to handle the subject, it is possible for teachers to place the right kind of reading matter in the hands of the pupils and to arrange for special lectures by trained personnel. Such a program has been successfully carried out in many cities and is very popular with young people. Any program, however, should have the backing of the principal or the school board.

THE TEACHER'S OWN ADJUSTMENTS

A teacher's reaction to adolescent behavior usually depends upon the extent to which her own life is adjusted. It is not so much what she says to her pupils as what she reveals through emotional composure, through moral courage, and through tact and skill in dealing with classroom situations. A teacher's personality has a profound effect upon her students. If she is nervous and erratic, her pupils will show the same tendencies. If she is dull and lifeless, they too will be apathetic and disinterested. But if she is cheerful, friendly, and understanding and has her emotions well under control, she will create a relaxed classroom atmosphere, which is essential for wholesome personality development. (A more comprehensive account of desirable characteristics for teachers is presented in Chapter 18, "Teacher Growth and Development.")

OUTLETS FOR EMOTIONAL STRESS

Strong emotions are characteristic of the adolescent period. As previously stated, students use various techniques of their own to solve emotional problems. Even though some of these techniques seem undesirable to the teacher, she should not try to suppress them lest other techniques, just as undesirable, be substituted in their place. Strong emotions must have an outlet. It is better for all concerned if the teacher provides opportunities for working off excess emotion through special activities such as field trips, special lunches, teas, picnics, etc. The field of homemaking in which knowledge and skills are closely related offers wonderful facilities for relieving emotional stress at short notice since a shift from mental to physical activity can be made very quickly. The point

to keep in mind is that it is wise to release emotions before they become pent up.

THE HOMEMAKING TEACHER AS A CONFIDANT

It is a natural thing for young people to seek someone in whom they may confide. Many educators believe that if young people have at least one adult who is genuinely interested in them and with whom they may exchange experiences on a fairly intimate basis, this procedure exercises a wholesome influence on the growing personality. As previously stated, research indicates that the mother is most frequently chosen as a confidant with chums ranking a close second and teachers following. The homemaking teacher is the chief confidant among teachers.[3]

PERSONALITY TRAITS PUPILS LIKE

The best liked teachers have been described as helpful in school work, friendly, cheerful, interested in and understanding of many things, patient, and fair. The least liked were those who nagged, were grouchy, sarcastic, partial, unfair, or unreasonable.[4] Other data indicate that as a rule girls choose as confidants teachers who are friendly, understanding, not too busy to listen, level-headed, easy to approach, fair-minded, experienced, not bossy, and not critical.[5] They also desire teachers who do not violate their confidences. Since women predominate in our modern schools, not much information is available on the type of man teacher whom boys prefer as a confidant. It is known, however, that as a rule boys admire physical vigor, moral courage, resourcefulness, and intelligence in men teachers. Rarely, however, does a man of any type teach seventh and eighth grades and far too few the senior-high-school level.

Underneath the surface of a friendly and sympathetic personality, a teacher is also expected to remain unemotional. She must also be prepared to be objective and not evaluate pupil experiences in terms of her own life situations. This means that she must avoid using

[3] Hazel M. Hatcher and Charlotte Klyng, *op. cit.*

[4] F. W. Hart, *Teachers and Teaching* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934).

[5] Rosalind B. Mentzer, *Characteristics Students Desire in Teachers Whom They Choose as Confidants* (unpublished study, Michigan State College, 1942).

pupils' problems as an outlet for her own frustrations and disappointments.

HOW TO BECOME A CONFIDANT

It may be difficult at first to ascertain those who really need the teacher as a confidant. Needless to say most teachers have pretty full schedules which precludes the possibility of acting as a confidant for a large number of pupils at any one time. In fact, it may not be desirable for students to feel that they can come to the teacher whenever they have a problem to solve. Goal-seeking procedure which gives pupils a share in planning the class program makes it possible for students to incorporate personal and academic goals in the program with the result that many adolescent problems that are common to various age levels can automatically be taken care of through regular class procedure. Pupils can work out their own problems through class experiences, home experiences, or extracurricular activities which generally include, at one time or another, individual conferences with the teacher. At these conferences it is possible for the teacher, who usually has some knowledge of a pupil's background, to evaluate obstacles which seem too great for pupils to overcome without adult assistance. When individual conferences are not a part of the regular class procedure, teachers will have to be on the alert for symptoms that indicate which students are using poor techniques to solve their problems. Sometimes a suggestion from the teacher may set the pupils on the right track; but if pupils fail to respond, it may then be necessary to provide an opportunity for a more extended conference.

It is natural for teachers to respond sympathetically to certain pupils and to be irritated and annoyed by others. Teachers tend to be drawn toward pupils whose problems and interests are identical with their own. Perhaps likes and dislikes cannot be avoided, but they certainly should be conscientiously suppressed in the school environment where each pupil is entitled to the same consideration. A teacher, however, should avoid forcing herself upon a pupil as a confidant although in the case of shy, timid pupils it may be necessary for her to take the initiative in urging confidences. As a rule, though, unless a pupil is willing to confide in the teacher, she should not be encouraged to do so.

WHAT PROCEDURE TO FOLLOW AS A CONFIDANT

In becoming a confidant, teachers need not feel that they must collect data for a detailed case history. As a rule the information that a pupil contributes plus what the teacher may secure from other sources such as home visits, diaries, or anecdotal records will be adequate to serve as a basis for guidance purposes. Cases of maladjustment which will be discussed in the following chapter necessarily call for a more detailed analysis. For the average adolescent problem, however, a teacher should observe the pupil carefully, obtain the facts which lead to an understanding of the problem, and then discuss with the pupil what seems to be best for that particular problem. The procedure should be as simple and as informal as possible. Short, friendly, homelike conversations are to be preferred to long, serious, emotional conferences. Sometimes much may be accomplished by simply being a sympathetic listener or by merely recommending suitable reading matter. If pupils are made to feel that personal attention is being given to them and that the teacher is genuinely interested in their thoughts and aspirations, adolescents will be greatly reassured. Adolescent problems cannot be solved by question-and-answer techniques. Rather are they solved by far-reaching changes in the personality which can be brought about only by two factors: an awareness on the part of the adolescent of the need for modification and an optimum environment. The homemaking teacher can offer suggestions from time to time; can provide experiences which produce self-reliance, self-control, sound mental health, and a wholesome attitude toward life; can evaluate progress of personality growth; and can provide an optimum classroom environment. Adolescents will have to do the rest themselves.

CRITERIA OF MATURITY

Although the various patterns of adolescent growth, previously described in the first part of the chapter, do not necessarily develop at a uniform rate, they eventually lead to the same goal — adulthood or maturity. Physical and intellectual growth, unless complicated by physical pathology or mental deficiency, are biological

processes over which one has little control. They progress from birth on, in a more or less orderly sequence, reaching a peak in development in late adolescence or early adulthood. Scientific research has made it possible to evaluate objectively physical and intellectual maturity. Skeletal development and the establishment of primary and secondary sexual functions can be readily appraised. Standardized tests, which not only measure mechanical skills and verbal intelligence but special abilities such as memory, judgment, imagination, and others, have long been effectively used to evaluate intellectual maturity. (See Chapter 6, "Growth Records.")

On the other hand, emotional and social growth while greatly accelerated during the adolescent period, are life-long processes which, although affected by many environmental factors beyond control, can be governed to a great extent by the individual. It is the development of these two growth patterns, integrated with the physical and the intellectual, which largely determine the extent to which maturity is attained. Emotional and social maturity, however, involving less tangible factors than physical and intellectual maturity, are more difficult to measure accurately although certain evaluation procedures yield fairly accurate results when interpreted by trained personnel.

There are, nevertheless, certain objective criteria of maturity which homemaking teachers can learn to recognize and evaluate accordingly. Generally speaking it may be said that maturity implies the attainment of an *integrated personality* which involves the following achievements:

1. An adjustment to changes resulting from physical growth.
2. The acquisition of self-control which means facing problems squarely without undue emotional tension, working out solutions that are reasonably satisfactory, and refusing to worry about what cannot be helped.
3. An understanding of one's assets and liabilities.
4. The securing of satisfactory relationships not only with agemates of both sexes, but with adults as well.
5. The establishment of independence from the family.
6. The formulation of a philosophy of life which includes con-

cepts of desirable behavior, acceptable attitudes toward authority, and well-formed values concerning life experiences.

7. The setting-up of vocational and avocational plans.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Recommend various ways in which parents can improve the social adjustment of their adolescent children. How would you suggest that parents keep in closer contact with their children's problems?
2. What are some general principles a teacher should bear in mind when helping high-school pupils with the following problems or similar ones?

   What stand should I take on smoking and petting?

   What can I do when my brother loses his temper? He is so hard to get along with.

   I want to learn to dance, but my mother won't let me take dancing lessons. She doesn't know everything I do so if I can't take lessons I'm going to learn somewhere else. Don't you think I am right?

   How can you show affection for a person you like if he doesn't show affection for you?

3. The following synopsis of an unfortunate family environment was written by a high-school student. What suggestions would you have for bringing about better understanding among the family members?

The Brown Family

Our family is pretty much of a mess. Dorothy and I can't get along with mother very well because she is sick most all of the time and is naturally very irritable. Dot and I get along pretty well with each other, though we do argue quite a bit, but we get over it easily. Mom has had quite a bit of trouble with our neighbors about a road, and today she had hysteria because a man who was cutting our wood on shares stole part of the wood. She usually works herself up over nothing, and although I love my mother dearly, I'm pretty disgusted with the way she has acted since Dad died. At times there is nobody nicer than Mom, and she means well even when she is angry. Dot is very thin, and although the woman that she is working for now has tried very hard to help her gain weight, it seems useless. Dot has a quick temper, but it's not

so bad lately because she's begun to see how bad Mom feels. I'm the one in the family who always seems to do the wrong thing. I always say the wrong thing at the wrong time and get an argument started. I believe that our family has argued about everything from soup to nuts — and all because we don't understand each other.

4. Make a study of the recreational facilities in a community and offer suggestions for improvement without much expense. In what ways might the homemaking department contribute to the suggested improvement?

9

Problems of Maladjustment

Neither condemn nor ridicule
but try to understand.
SPINOZA

Various problems common to the adolescent period have just been discussed in the preceding chapter. These problems are a natural part of the growth process and if accepted as such can generally be worked out through classroom channels in conjunction with the learning process. Problems of maladjustment, however, are not a natural part of growth and need to be handled somewhat differently. For this reason the subject is given special consideration.

The Nature of Maladjustment

All living involves a continuous process of adjusting. It has been said that adjustment means three things: an individual, the world, and the process of bringing them into a balanced relationship. When this is not accomplished and there is unhappiness and lack of harmony between the individual and the environment, maladjustment is said to result.

Maladjustment does not follow any specific pattern, nor does it produce a typical maladjusted personality. It occurs at all ages and at all levels of ability, varying in duration and intensity. Why some pupils fail to adjust while others with apparently similar causes remain normal is still an unsettled question. It is known, however, that children are not born maladjusted and that maladjustment does not appear suddenly in the life of any child. Many

factors together bring about maladjustment. Sometimes these are accumulated over a period of years; sometimes it is the sheer weight of a number of adverse factors which causes problem behavior. Added responsibilities and pressures of the adolescent period often bring to light problems which have long been in existence yet not previously recognized.

The Homemaking Teacher's Responsibility

Unless there is evidence to the contrary, the homemaking teacher should assume that pupils are fairly well adjusted. Her aim should be to recognize maladjustments when they occur but not to go about looking for them. The behavior of adolescents differs from that of young children in that they no longer make direct responses but usually resort to more subtle techniques which permit them to avoid emotional situations. As already pointed out, some of these techniques are not harmful if used only occasionally, but those that persist over a long period usually indicate maladjustment. Any reasonably observant teacher can recognize problem behavior, but it is necessary to distinguish between what is an occasional manifestation and the more serious types of conduct which require skilled analysis. Furthermore, many symptoms are merely exaggerated forms of normal conduct and should not be considered indicative of serious emotional disturbance. For example, modesty and shyness are normal types of behavior for many adolescent girls. If Mary refuses to act as hostess for the class who is entertaining a group of parents, her conduct should not be construed as indicative of a serious emotional imbalance which makes normal adjustment impossible. It is probably a natural reaction which will gradually be outgrown if Mary can be made to feel that she can be a successful hostess.

There is no standard procedure in our country for handling difficult behavior problems. In localities where guidance personnel are a part of the school or community setup, the homemaking teacher's main task is completed when she has recognized a possible maladjustment, has assembled certain necessary data concerning the pupil, and has turned this information over to the principal or

guidance workers. When trained personnel are not available, the data should be taken to the principal who may call upon the homemaking teacher to co-operate with her in working out plans for the readjustment of the pupil. In no instance should the homemaking teacher attempt to carry out any form of treatment on her own initiative, that is, without the approval of the principal or unless specifically asked to do so under the guidance of trained personnel.

Symptoms of Maladjustment and Remedial Suggestions

In every classroom there are certain undesirable behavior manifestations on the part of adolescents which serve as warning signals to the teacher that something is wrong. These tendencies are often referred to as symptoms of maladjustment but are so diversified and in many cases so overlapping they are difficult to classify. They vary in intensity and degree within themselves so that it is even more difficult to say just how serious they are until one knows how they affect the total situation.

Before analyzing some of these symptoms it might be well to point out that symptoms and causes of maladjustment are not identical. From the pupils' viewpoint symptoms are techniques used to solve their problems. From the viewpoint of the teacher, symptoms are outward manifestations of behavior which indicate that pupils are having difficulty solving these problems. What confuses the average teacher is the fact that even though a symptom may be observed, it often fails to give a direct clue to the underlying cause of the behavior. For example, excessive daydreaming is a symptom, not a cause, of maladjustment and may be due to any one of a number of factors.

Care must, therefore, be taken to treat the cause rather than the symptom. Teachers sometimes have a tendency to attack the type of behavior which is most annoying to them, not realizing that eliminating a symptom from the classroom does not necessarily eliminate the cause. Another symptom just as detrimental to an adequate adjustment may arise either in the classroom or perhaps in the home environment. This means that instead of attempting to remove the symptom, the underlying cause or causes of the un-

wholesome behavior should be discovered. First of all, however, it is important to recognize the symptoms. Some of those most commonly encountered by the average homemaking teacher are indicated below.

THE EXCESSIVE DAYDREAMER

Nearly everyone daydreams to some extent. A certain amount of it is normal and should not be frowned upon by the teacher. Sometimes daydreaming motivates conduct and is an incentive to better work. However, there is a vast difference between the pupil who attempts to put daydreams into action and the pupil who is content to daydream as a substitute for action. Unless the daydreams can be made to become true, they are futile and hinder the pupil's development. Excessive daydreaming can be a symptom of underlying mental ill health, in which case a psychiatrist should be consulted. As a rule pupils who are unsuccessful in their school work or who are unhappy at home or who are social misfits are the ones who resort to excessive daydreaming. Situations of this sort produce a feeling of insecurity which can only be compensated for by flight into a dream world.

Because daydreamers are quiet and cause no trouble in the classroom, they are often permitted to continue this way. Daydreaming, however, should never be allowed to exist over a period of time because once the habit has been established, it is difficult to check. When the homemaking teacher becomes aware of a pupil who tends to daydream, she should first attempt to keep this pupil in a world of reality. This can be done by building up self-security and self-adequacy or perhaps by arousing more interest in the school program. To do the latter, the teacher may suggest a special experience in which she knows the pupil is interested and which the pupil can carry out successfully. Such an experience might involve subchairman activity in regard to a coming event such as a class demonstration or an afternoon tea for parents. If the daydreaming seems to be the result of failure to achieve, pupils should be given tasks commensurate with their ability, tasks which the teacher knows the pupils can successfully perform. There is nothing like a little success to bolster up the feeling of inadequacy and to make

one realize that the ability to succeed along certain lines is not limited to a few chosen individuals.

In cases where excessive daydreaming may be traced to unhappy home conditions or to environmental pressures which have become too great for the pupil to bear, the teacher should refer the case to the principal or guidance worker since it may be necessary to work out a co-operative program between the school and the home.

SHOWING OFF

One of the poor techniques most frequently used to solve conflicts is to attract attention to oneself by methods which are not socially acceptable to the teacher. This is often done by pushing, shoving, tripping, and even striking other pupils. Noisy and boisterous talk or laughter makes a pupil conspicuous too and is often accompanied by boastful accounts of unusual exploits or constant bragging. Teasing is also used and can cause an extremely unpleasant undercurrent of emotional tension within the classroom. Exaggerated courtesy likewise attracts attention especially if it is bestowed upon the teacher. Tardiness with an ostensibly false excuse is frequently used to disrupt classroom routine and to divert attention to the late pupil.

The seriousness of this type of aggressive behavior depends to a great extent upon how intense and frequent the activity is and how it affects the total classroom environment. Boastfulness, for example, is less serious than quarrelsomeness simply because it is usually ineffectual. On the other hand, quarrelsomeness tends to have a detrimental effect upon the classroom as a whole. It is not considered advisable to attract the attention of the class to any of these undesirable behavior tendencies, however, for to do so merely overemphasizes their importance. The easiest way is to disregard the situation for the moment in so far as possible and later plan to have a casual talk with the pupil who seems to be causing the trouble. This can be done by suggesting that the pupil remain after school and help the teacher put away supplies or do other co-operative work which permits informal conversation between the teacher and the pupil. By careful questioning a tactful teacher can get pupils to talk about themselves, and in this way she

can frequently obtain clues which may lead to the source of the difficulty.

DISHONESTY

This technique includes lying, cheating, stealing, and other forms of conduct not considered honest. Cheating perhaps is the most prominent and occurs more frequently than most teachers realize. Since it is well known that honesty is dependent among other things upon intelligence, home training, and adequate social adjustment, it is not surprising that honesty does not increase with age. In every classroom, especially at the adolescent level, there is always a group of retarded pupils who would do almost anything to keep pace with their classmates. These are the pupils from whom we may expect the largest proportion of dishonest behavior although there are always a certain number of average and even superior students who are also deceitful. For some reason, probably due to social motives, lying is more common among girls of adolescent age than among boys. It is easy for a girl to build up the habit of telling little white lies which she considers harmless but necessary in order to create an effect or to smooth over an unpleasant situation. On the other hand, stealing is probably more prevalent among boys than girls and usually occurs among children who have not yet learned the meaning of property rights. When it occurs at the adolescent level it is far more serious and is usually indicative of a serious maladjustment.

It must be kept constantly in mind that dishonesty symptoms are extremely varied and that a pupil may lie or cheat in one instance and not in another. In some instances adolescent girls have been known to steal money from one another but to be scrupulously honest with school funds. Much depends upon the particular situation in which the pupil is placed and the motives underlying the symptom itself. For example, if an exaggerated emphasis is placed on the importance of marks, then there is bound to be a feeling that dishonesty is justifiable to prevent failure. It is well known that in classes where the importance of marks is minimized and the all-around development of the pupil is stressed, fewer instances of dishonesty occur. In cases of lying, care should be taken not to make

pupils feel guilty. The emphasis should be on helping pupils learn better ways of meeting situations and showing them that lying usually makes a bad situation worse. As a rule, however, remedial procedure for all dishonest techniques should depend upon the frequency of the act. If a pupil persists in dishonest behavior when nothing much is to be gained, then there must be something emotionally wrong which calls for professional treatment.

EXTREME TIMIDITY AND FEAR

Opposed to the aggressive individual is the shy withdrawing pupil who is amenable to discipline and obedience but who often refuses to take an active part in experiences or class discussions. This may be due to various causes such as stage fright, a speech defect, or a series of failures for which the pupil may have been ridiculed by the class. Sometimes timidity is closely allied with fear and worry, which if deeply rooted may be carried over from a bad home situation into the classroom. Girls tend to be more fearful than boys. Tenth grade girls among other things have been found to worry about examinations; accidents; disease, especially tuberculosis; operations; death; and personal appearance. Sometimes if fear is due to examinations, the pupil will become ill with a headache or stomach pains in order to avoid the situation. Extreme cases of fear in adolescents are serious and indicate emotional instability which if not brought under control may develop into a serious mental disturbance.

In cases of timidity which seem to be near the surface, sympathetic understanding on the part of the teacher may be all that is necessary at first. This should be followed by a mental appraisal of timid pupils, who may not be mentally able to do the class work. In such cases the program may need to be adjusted in order that pupils may be given work commensurate with their abilities. For the sake of all timid pupils the teacher needs to be careful not to limit class discussions to the more aggressive students but to make the shy ones feel that their contributions are just as worth while as any of the others in the group. If the class is told that comments in class discussion are not graded but represent an honest opinion, timid pupils will respond more readily.

Timid pupils who appear to have deep-set fears need special treatment. The average homemaking teacher is not trained to handle cases of this nature, although she should collect the necessary data about the pupil before she refers the matter to the principal. The teacher, however, should be careful at all times not to mention the fear technique in the presence of the pupil since emphasis on any single type of behavior is apt to create additional deep-seated fears which are not easily removed. Timid pupils need to be prepared for a visit to a psychiatrist or to a child guidance clinic. The principal will probably tell such pupils that since they do not appear to be getting along in school as well as they could, it seems best to consult someone outside the school who is well qualified to offer suggestions.

Causes of Maladjustment and Remedial Suggestions

Although it is important to recognize the symptoms of maladjustment, permanent beneficial treatment will generally not result until the causes themselves are discovered. The situation is somewhat complicated, however, by the fact that there seems to be no one cause but a variety of factors which bring about maladjusted behavior. Frequently, though, one major cause may be discovered, and if this is dealt with effectively, some of the other causes which bring about undesirable reactions, will tend to disappear. The teacher, of course, cannot be expected to remove all the causes of maladjustment. Most of them are beyond her control. The best she can hope for in most cases is to relieve pressure by modifying some of the factors and perhaps helping the individual to accept those which cannot be changed.

PHYSICAL HANDICAPS

Physical defects, slight though they may often be, are the cause of many a maladjustment. Perhaps the most common are those due to hereditary factors which cannot easily be changed. Individual differences as to size are commonly accepted causes of maladjustment among adolescent girls. One girl may be overdeveloped for her age and may be extremely self-conscious. Another may be under-

developed and equally sensitive. Still another may be too tall or too short. The trouble comes when there is wide variation from the normal range. Closely allied to the matter of size is weight, which is not necessarily controlled by hereditary factors. This is a particularly important consideration for adolescents who have a tendency to overeat and who often lack knowledge of a suitable diet to control weight. Once excessive weight occurs, pupils may be ridiculed or even shunned by their classmates and thus become unduly sensitive of their appearance.

Physical disabilities such as partial deafness, poor vision, and speech difficulties are also causes of maladjustment, especially when these handicaps are not known to the teacher. Adolescents are often so sensitive about defects of this sort that they try to hide them, not realizing that in so doing they create situations which are misjudged by the teacher. Failure to hear directions or to grasp the full significance of class discussions retards academic progress and leads the teacher to believe that the student is either stupid or not paying attention. When this situation continues indefinitely, feelings of insecurity and personal inadequacy on the part of the pupil occur, leading to undesirable types of behavior and often resulting in resentment toward the teacher and rejection of the whole educational process.

Even more serious are physical defects such as crippling conditions, heart trouble, or tuberculosis, of whose existence the pupils themselves may be unaware. Undernourished or improperly nourished pupils often react unfavorably to classroom routine. How great a deficiency in these physical factors there needs to be before maladjustment is observable, is not yet known. Educators appear to believe, however, that substantial or marked deviation from the average may carry with it additional strain in the adjustment of the student.

Symptoms indicating physical handicaps are speech disorders such as stuttering or stammering, tics, extreme nervousness, unusual sensitiveness, excessive fatigue, feelings of insecurity and personal inadequacy, lack of interest in school work, and withdrawal from social contacts.

School physicians and school nurses are becoming more prevalent

in our educational systems each year with the result that thousands of pupils are periodically checked for physical defects. If this is done in a teacher's school, she should read the health record of maladjusted pupils to see whether or not they are suffering from any physical defects not immediately apparent. In communities where medical examinations are not given at school and the teacher suspects a physical deficiency to be one of the basic causes of problem behavior, she should suggest to the principal that a physical examination be given the pupil. This should include a nutritional appraisal as well.

If the homemaking teacher's co-operation is needed in carrying out treatment in the classroom, she should make these physically handicapped pupils feel that she is interested in their welfare. Any class discussion of the matter, however, should be carefully avoided except in particular cases where group co-operation is necessary. Occasionally if class leaders are needed to assist in the readjustment of a pupil, it may be necessary to talk over ways and means of facilitating the adjustment. At no time should the teacher single out handicapped pupils and publicly excuse them from doing work because of a physical defect. In most instances pupils should be treated as normal individuals; and pity, oversolicitude, and overprotection should be avoided. The main goal should be to develop independent habits of work and study which lead to normal behavior and adequate academic achievement in spite of the physical defect.

The teacher can best remedy situations of slight maladjustment due to constitutional variation by making pupils feel that what they consider a physical handicap really possesses certain advantages. This may call for ingenuity and tact on the part of the teacher, but an informal chat with pupils may help them to realize that they are overemphasizing the seriousness of the defect and that other students are not as critical of them as they are of themselves. The teacher might mention the fact that other students have crosses to bear too.

Most cases of overweight due to faulty diet, habitual overindulgence, and lack of exercise are not in themselves difficult to correct if pupils are careful to follow a strict routine of self-discipline

based on the recommendation of a competent person. This procedure requires will power on the part of pupils, but an occasional word of praise from the teacher whenever improvement is noted will often help to make students feel that a rigid adherence to discipline is worth while. The more serious cases of excessive weight which may be due to a combination of faulty diet and certain glandular deficiencies should respond to treatment in the hands of a competent physician.

MENTAL AND EMOTIONAL HANDICAPS

It should be realized, of course, that it is difficult to separate the mental functions from the physical. Abnormal mental conditions are apt to cause physical disorders, and physical defects play an important part in the functioning of thought and feeling. There are, however, certain types of mental handicaps ranging from mental deficiency or mental superiority to marked disorders of thought and feeling which lead to maladjustment. Some of these maladjustments are due to hereditary endowment; others arise from disease or accident; many more are the result of poor habit training and the exposure to unwholesome adult control.

Inferior Mentality

It is generally conceded that mental subnormality is not a primary cause of problem behavior; it is sometimes a contributing factor but not in itself a sign of probable maladjustment. Many pupils with intelligence well below the average do creditable work in school and make an adequate classroom adjustment without difficulty. Serious trouble may occur when dull pupils fall so hopelessly behind in their studies that even the best efforts of the teacher cannot keep them from failing. Adolescents, above all things, want to be one of the crowd. An instinctive fear of being left behind or of even being different from the crowd often causes emotional disturbances which especially handicap pupils of low ability. When these pupils begin to think that they are a constant failure, real feelings of inferiority arise which prevent them from making an adequate adjustment.

Mental Superiority

It is often difficult for teachers to realize that pupils with superior intelligence sometimes fail to adjust to classroom routine, too. The old idea, however, that brilliant pupils are more nervous and high-strung than the average students is no longer accepted in the educational field. Scientific data indicate that gifted pupils are more likely to be superior in emotional stability and control than less gifted pupils. Therefore, the problem of maladjustment for those of superior intelligence follows a somewhat different pattern than for pupils of subnormal mentality. If the pace of the class is determined by the low, general average of a group, superior students are apt to acquire habits of idleness or daydreaming and may become extremely bored. Research with gifted pupils has also shown that they are more aggressive, more competitive, and more active both in and out of school than the average.[1] This means that in classroom discussions and activities, they are apt to monopolize the situation and, if curtailed too much, tend to lose interest in all class proceedings. As a rule, however, causes of maladjustment are less frequent among gifted adolescent pupils than among those of inferior mentality.

Severe Emotional Disorders

Mental handicaps that include marked disorders of thought and feeling are often difficult to diagnose since they involve factors less tangible than mental ability. Sickness of mind, mental breakdowns, neuroses, complexes, and psychopathy — as these disorders are frequently called — are intricate patterns of behavior which become increasingly difficult for the teacher to understand because of the technical terminology used to describe the causes and symptoms. However, if the teacher realizes that certain influences in the pupil's life are partly due to hereditary endowment and partly to the result of environment, she may be able to determine to what extent pupils are influenced by each and judge the

[1] E. E. Lamson, *A Study of Young Gifted Children in Senior High School* (Contributions to Education, No. 424; New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930), pp. viii-117; P. A. Witty, "A Study of One Hundred Gifted Children," *University of Kansas Bulletin of Education*, 1930, p. 44.

situation accordingly. For example, some extreme cases of emotional disorder are due to hereditary factors and cannot be fully evaluated until a family history is obtained. If a maladjusted pupil has one or both parents who have some form of insanity, it is reasonable to assume that pupil may have inherited, not insanity itself, but perhaps a delicate nervous system which might lead to mental conflicts and emotional imbalance if the pupil were under excessive mental or emotional strain. The same thing might apply to families in which feeblemindedness, epilepsy, chronic alcoholism, and other serious disorders are prevalent. None of these disorders may be directly inherited, but if there appears to be a constitutional weakness among members of a family, there may be some hereditary basis for a pupil's maladjustment.

Symptoms indicating mental or emotional handicaps include excessive anger; feelings of inferiority and insecurity; daydreaming; excessive depression; avoidance of responsibility; unduly aggressive behavior such as boastfulness, loud talking, and laughing; lying; cheating; and stealing.

Suggestions for Handling Mental and Emotional Handicaps

In determining whether or not a maladjustment is primarily due to mental deficiency or mental superiority, the first step is to confer with the principal in regard to having the pupil given an individual examination by a psychologist or skilled tester. After the mental status of a pupil has been determined, the type of treatment decided on should suit the personality traits and interests of the student.

Pupils with intelligence quotients as low as 70 may learn to do certain things very well and with a little assistance may follow the classroom routine without too much difficulty. It is true that neither the assistance of the teacher nor extra effort on the part of pupils will change an intelligence quotient perceptibly. On the other hand, unless pupils have personality traits due to hereditary or constitutional defects such as frequent or severe epileptic seizures or psychotic tendencies, there is every reason to expect a satisfactory classroom adjustment under optimum conditions. It should be remembered that inferior mentality is only a relative term and that much depends upon the demands which are made upon the pupil's

mentality. The most direct method for bringing about a favorable classroom environment is for the teacher to adjust the curriculum to meet the ability of the pupils. It is particularly important also that mentally retarded pupils learn to acquire wholesome health habits while they are still in school. Among other things they need to learn to protect themselves from communicable diseases, to form habits of cleanliness, to choose the right food, to acquire skill in sewing and cooking, and to learn how to spend money wisely. It is important to realize that the teacher can do much along these lines for mentally deficient pupils within the classroom that will carry over into the home situation. The problem of dealing with this type of student requires ingenuity and resourcefulness on the part of the teacher, but if the maladjusted, mentally retarded pupils can be given personal security and a feeling that they have a place in this world, their lack of innate intelligence will not be an overwhelming handicap.

In all cases of maladjustment which appear to have mental superiority as the contributing cause, the teacher will probably be asked to arrange a program to meet the pupil's capacity. Bright pupils must be given enough work to keep them busy and an extra amount to keep them stimulated. This does not mean giving more and more of the same type of activity just to fill up time. On the contrary it calls for as varied a type of program as possible since superior students detest monotony above all things. They become easily bored and lazy if school work does not offer a challenge to their brilliant minds.

Treatment for maladjustments which appear unrelated to very high or very low intelligence quotients but which seem to involve severe emotional disorders is difficult. If the disorder is not sufficiently severe to warrant withdrawal from school, the principal or guidance worker will doubtless recommend the course of action which the teacher should follow. As a rule treatment will include an appraisal of the pupil's strength and assets and an effort to minimize all weaknesses in the classroom. The teacher, of course, is limited in the service she can offer such a pupil. Primarily she will be concerned with providing an adequate work and recreational program which will fit the needs and interests of the maladjusted

pupil without involving too much mental or physical strain. Ideally the readjustment of such a student calls for at least a three-point organization including the guidance worker, the teacher, and the home, each co-operating in a joint effort to bring about as adequate an adjustment as possible.

POOR HOME ENVIRONMENT

It has already been pointed out in the preceding chapter that unsatisfactory home conditions give rise to many problems. Although adolescents attempt to solve these conflicts in various ways, some young people eventually find themselves unable to cope with existing conditions, and maladjustment, therefore, results.

It is easy to enumerate causes of maladjustment that arise within the home, but it is far more difficult to prescribe a remedial course of action. Although much of the trouble is due to the fact that parents themselves are maladjusted and in many cases emotionally immature, it would not be wise for the teacher to tell them so. The whole matter is one that in most cases should be handled with professional care and tact. In communities where guidance personnel are not available, the principal may desire to work out a program for readjustment with the help of the homemaking teacher who has initiated the case. One of the first steps would be to obtain a comprehensive picture of the home environment, and the homemaking teacher because of the nature of her work may be asked to secure the necessary data. The principal may instruct the teacher regarding the techniques to follow, but lacking such instruction, a few suggestions may help the teacher. Whatever procedure is followed, however, should be agreed upon in advance by the principal and homemaking teacher. In obtaining a comprehensive picture of the home, the most direct approach is one of two ways: (1) the teacher may visit the home; or (2) the parent may visit the school.

The Teacher May Visit the Home

Detailed suggestions concerning visits in connection with home experiences are discussed in Chapter 12, "Enriching Home Experiences," but cases of maladjustment call for a slight modification of procedure. The first thing for the teacher to realize is that it is con-

sidered advisable to withhold the details of a maladjustment until a harmonious relation between the teacher and the parent has been established. To begin an interview by enumerating undesirable behavior traits or reciting unpleasant classroom episodes would probably put the average mother immediately on the defensive and create an antagonistic feeling from the start. It is far wiser to discuss mutually pleasant topics and gradually lead up to serious matters later on when the mother is more at ease in the teacher's presence. A friendly conversation in which the teacher shows genuine interest can reveal much about the habits and attitudes of various members of the family, especially if the mother can be led to carry on much of the conversation while the teacher makes mental notes. At no time should a teacher take written notes, although she should jot down her impressions and the information that she has obtained while the visit is fresh in her mind.

Once the mother has been made to feel at ease, the teacher may tactfully lead up to the problem of maladjustment, if such procedure has been agreed upon by the principal and the teacher. Leading up to the problem can be done by first emphasizing the good points of the pupil and stressing specific accomplishments. Gradually the teacher can bring out the facts concerning the maladjustment, but care should be taken to make the details as simple and as brief as possible. The average mother in attempting to adjust her mind to what she suspects is going to be an unpleasant matter, is apt to become mentally confused and will not grasp the significance of the situation if the teacher carries on a lengthy discussion of problem behavior. Since the first visit to the home should not be too long, the teacher can postpone some of the details of the maladjustment until another time. If readjustment of a pupil is worth considering at all, time and effort must not be minimized. Several visits may even be necessary before adequate co-operation between the home and the school is finally established. Much, of course, depends upon the mother and how she accepts the fact that her child has not adjusted to classroom routine. Successive visits may reveal that the son or daughter has failed to adjust at home too — information which the mother may withhold until she has become better acquainted with the teacher.

As the teacher becomes better acquainted with the family, it will be easier to offer possible suggestions for bringing about the readjustment of the pupil. All suggestions, of course, should either be recommended by the principal or receive her approval. There should not, however, be too many suggestions for the mother to follow at any one time. The best results are obtained by recommending a few ideas and waiting to see how they work. It is, of course, quite possible that some of the suggestions will not be readily accepted. The teacher must prepare herself for disappointments and be ready to change her plans if she encounters too much resistance. Care should be taken not to ask the mother to change her household routine too drastically lest other members of the family become antagonistic and hinder the process of readjustment. Although the parents may be the direct cause of a pupil's maladjustment, the teacher must guard against seeming to criticize their actions. The teacher's goal is the readjustment of the pupil; everything else is incidental. It is quite possible that in reintegrating the maladjusted pupil and the environment into a more acceptable pattern, other members of the family may also benefit. The idea, however, is not to do away with family friction but to create an environment in which parents can develop more maturity and ability to handle their own children.

The Parent May Visit the School

In some communities where visiting the home works too much of a hardship on the teacher, the principal may suggest that the parent be asked to come to the homemaking teacher's room to discuss a maladjustment. It is believed that this procedure is definitely inferior to that of visiting the home and, if followed at all, should be carefully controlled by the teacher. The parent should come only after the class has been dismissed and when the teacher has ample time for an extended interview. The same procedure suggested in a visit to the home should be used. Postponing the details of the maladjustment until a harmonious relation has been established would apply in this situation even more so since the mother is probably more or less inconvenienced by the visit and may have an unfriendly attitude to start with. Bringing out the pupil's good

points first will usually change this attitude and soften the effect of the unpleasant details which are to follow. The parent should always leave with a definite recommendation to carry out for the readjustment of the pupil but should be made to realize that if one idea does not work, another may be more successful. She should be urged to visit the school periodically in order that both the parent and the teacher may compare progress.

The teacher must realize, however, that without visiting the home, she is getting only a portion of the total picture of the maladjusted pupil. In fact, she is getting only those details of the home environment which the mother wishes to reveal and which are likely to be colored by emotional factors. If it is possible, it is far better for the teacher to evaluate the home situation through her own observations rather than through the eyes of a prejudiced parent.

POOR SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

As previously stated, pressures outside the home often constitute a fundamental basis for undesirable behavior, although it is sometimes difficult to separate neighborhood factors from forces which operate within the home itself. This situation applies particularly to densely populated areas where the economic income of the family is low, where improper housing conditions exist, and where recreational facilities are poor. In crowded homes that are dull and monotonous with little or no cultural or spiritual advantages, boys tend to join undesirable gangs while girls become restless and dissatisfied, seeking pleasure in too many movies and questionable dance halls or roadhouses. An adolescent girl deprived of a normal social environment feels insecure and often compensates by refusing to follow acceptable standards of conduct in school.

Again it is difficult to offer suggestions about dealing with conditions over which the teacher has so little control. Although the physical conditions of the home cannot be materially changed, however, helping pupils to apply their knowledge of suitable diets and to make simple home improvements within the limits of the family budget not only will have a salutary effect upon the family as a unit but will tend to create a feeling of security for the malad-

justed pupil as well. It is impossible or even inadvisable for the teacher to attempt to change social conditions to any great extent. Lack of time prevents her from crusading against poverty or crowded home conditions even though she may deplore the fact that such conditions exist. Her attitude must be one of acceptance for the time being coupled with an effort to make the most of what opportunities are available for readjustment.

The school can do much to offset the lack of adequate recreational facilities by providing extracurricular activities of a nonacademic nature in afterschool hours. Clubs of various kinds, such as home economics clubs, dramatic clubs, glee clubs, and others, and athletic contests offer excellent opportunities for leisure-time amusement, although none of these activities should impose too much of a burden upon the student whose academic standing is below par. Thanks to the efforts of many homemaking teachers, communities are coming to realize that municipal playgrounds, swimming pools, tennis courts, and club houses are means of keeping adolescents away from roadhouses and cheap dance halls and are sound investments for bringing about good citizenship.

Ways of Diagnosing Maladjustment

As previously stated, homemaking teachers should assume that pupils are fairly well adjusted unless indications are to the contrary. It is only when certain persistent types of unwholesome behavior point to a possible maladjustment that teachers need to make an extensive collection of data. Such data are vitally important not only for teacher-principal diagnosis but for special guidance personnel or out-of-school agencies who, if available, will probably be called upon to handle the maladjustment.

The ideal method of approach when maladjustment seems probable is to obtain as many meaningful facts from the pupil's experience as possible and to make this information scientific and objective. Some teachers keep charts on which they chronologically record persistent types of problem behavior, unhealthy attitudes, and undesirable personality traits. Still others use rating scales, personality check lists, or questionnaires. (See the discussion of

different kinds of records on pages 115–124.) Any one of these appraisals may reveal a possible maladjustment, but the principal or guidance worker will want more comprehensive data before final conclusions can be made. Such information includes facts about the pupil's mentality, achievement, health, family influence, and social environment, and some or all of these facts may have to be furnished by the homemaking teacher.

The case-study approach appears to be the most satisfactory way to analyze behavior problems. This type of data, supplemented by anecdotal records and other appraisals, furnishes enough evidence for diagnostic value and helps the principal or guidance worker to distinguish more clearly those aspects which lend themselves to change from those which cannot be altered.

In cases where the homemaking teacher is not given specific instructions about making a record, some such brief outline as the following may help the teacher to objectify the necessary information, although the outline should be considered suggestive only in a general way. Emphasis will necessarily be placed on different aspects as they prove to be important to the problem and as far as there is information available. The outline suggested has been kept simple with the knowledge that the teacher's time is limited. She need not fill out every item in every case, but the outline may keep her from limiting her information to one aspect only.

The problem

- The reason for studying this particular pupil
- Approximate length of time this behavior has been apparent
- How the pupil differs from other pupils
- Concrete example of the difficulty

The pupil

- Name; birth date; address; race; sex.
- School Record
  - Present grade
  - Past record of work
  - General mental ability
  - Special deficiencies and proficiencies

Personal Appearance

General impression
Neatness or condition of dress
Mannerisms

Physical Record

Weight and height; normal or otherwise
General condition of health
Physical defects
Previous health history

Environment

The Family

Economic level: number of rooms, housekeeping standards
Individuals in the home: father's occupation, extent of education
Parental attitudes: methods of discipline, severe or lax
Responsibilities of pupil at home
Interparental relationships: compatibility
Pertinent facts regarding habits of pupil
Significant events in pupil's life: frights, conflicts, illness

The Neighborhood

Housing conditions: residential, apartment, downtown
Recreational facilities: clubs, parks, playgrounds
Desirable companions: gangs
General atmosphere

The outline includes essential data which should be obtained before problems of maladjustment can be thoroughly evaluated. This does not mean that the homemaking teacher will have to collect the material alone. In addition to her own personal observations, she may obtain information from school records, from other teachers, from the school physician, the school nurse, the physical director, or from outside agencies. Visits of parents to the school and of the teacher to the home are highly desirable ways of obtaining information about the pupil and of establishing a sympathetic and co-operative attitude between the school and the home. All information should be regarded as strictly confidential, and provisions should be made to keep it so.

Facilities That Aid Adjustment

In some of our larger communities problems of maladjustment are handled by special guidance officers such as visiting teachers, a dean of girls, a director of personnel, an educational counselor, a director of health education, a psychiatrist, or a child guidance clinic. Many of these people are trained in social service case work and understand the techniques of securing co-operation between the home and the school. Because of their wide experience and training, these guidance officers feel free to recommend changes in attitudes and conditions within the family circle. They are also familiar with outside agencies which often help in re-educating the maladjusted pupil. They can, moreover, follow a student from year to year and evaluate the various kinds of treatment that have been used. Many times the matter of readjustment is prolonged beyond the period that the pupil remains with a particular teacher, and in such cases guidance officers can carry out remedial treatment without interruption. The teacher's observations, however, are always important aids to guidance officers and are vitally necessary for most diagnostic procedure.

Although there is a definite trend in education today to train guidance personnel, even in large communities those specialists in problems of maladjustment are limited in number, not because their value is underestimated, but because of financial considerations. In small communities school budgets are usually limited to teachers who have regular classes. In most cases of maladjustment, therefore, the average homemaking teacher after collecting the necessary data will confer with the principal, who will probably ask the teacher to work out a co-operative program for readjustment. In communities where guidance personnel are available, the homemaking teacher will be expected to initiate activity with regard to a maladjustment — that is, to prepare the necessary classroom data upon which much of her own diagnosis will be based. Later she may be asked to sit in on conferences with the principal and the guidance worker, perhaps even with the pupil or parents. In most cases she will be the guiding influence in carrying out certain recommendations within the classroom.

Regardless of the techniques used, the goal will be the same,

namely, to modify the pupil's behavior and possibly the environment so that adjustment to classroom procedure will be one indication of a more satisfactory personal and social relationship.

MODIFYING THE ENVIRONMENT

In dealing with problems of maladjustment it has often been a question whether to attempt to change the personality of the pupil or change the environment to meet the needs of the pupil. Many educators believe that it is difficult for the teacher who has a pupil for a comparatively short time to build up permanent attitudes which will directly affect a severe maladjustment. In most cases it would seem easier to modify the environment to some extent in an effort to alter the stresses and conflicts which may be causing the maladjustment. This does not mean changing the pupil from one environment to another, since in most cases that would merely shift the problems to a new setting, but it does imply a possible change in classroom procedure and perhaps the redirection of parental control. It is surprising how many serious symptoms of maladjustment such as excessive daydreaming or persistent aggressive behavior tend to disappear by altering the pressures which parents and other members of the family may be imposing upon a pupil or by modifying the school program to fit the individual needs, interests, and abilities of the pupil. Problems, of course, are not swept away by these artificial changes; but it is believed that they reduce tension on the part of the pupil and make the path of readjustment easier.

MAKING SCHOOL A CONSTRUCTIVE EXPERIENCE

Teachers are beginning to realize more than ever before that teaching calls for a constructive program of work which deals with the positive rather than the negative aspects of life. This means that instead of accepting unwholesome patterns of behavior as a natural part of every classroom experience, the successful teacher makes every effort to prevent such behavior from occurring. It is believed by many educators that this can be done by setting up a constructive environment with definite goals for the pupils to achieve and by relating the content and methodology of these goals to the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils. When pupils are

given opportunities for self-expression, for participation in deciding what they shall learn and evaluating what they have learned, behavior patterns tend to become more normal and socially acceptable. By careful daily planning to make the school day a pleasant and interesting one, the teacher can do much to create a healthy classroom atmosphere in which emotional tension is at a minimum. Educators now believe that how pupils feel toward their work, their associates, their duties, and their responsibilities makes all the difference in the world. If pupils can maintain wholesome attitudes toward these things and teachers can become as much interested in how their pupils live and feel as in what academic knowledge they achieve, adjustment can be interpreted in terms of growth and development.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What course of action would you recommend for a tenth grade pupil who constantly worries about the impression she makes on other people and is certain her classmates do not like her?
2. Marion is an unattractive, undernourished girl of fifteen in 8-A. Last semester she failed three out of five units but because of her age was passed "on condition." Her first report card this term showed one B, three C's, one D. Recently Marion has been moody and sullen, sometimes disobedient. When the class agreed to invite the mothers to school for a tea, Marion was the only member of the class who vetoed the plan. When asked to give her reasons Marion stated she did not think mothers would be interested in "that sort of thing." Later after the tea, the teacher learned that Marion had not mentioned the matter at home although part of a class assignment had been to write an invitation to each mother. The teacher knows that Marion's family are on relief.
   a. What do you think may be the cause of Marion's behavior in class?
   b. What real reason may Marion have for not telling her mother about the tea?
   c. Do you feel that Marion's situation is serious enough to warrant a case study?
3. What should be done with a thirteen-year-old girl who identifies herself so completely with a popular movie actress that she imitates her in speech, dress, and action in the classroom?

4. Jean is a bright, attractive girl of sixteen with a tendency to overdress. Her silk frocks and bright jewelry look out of place in the classroom. Jean could be an excellent student, but is absent so frequently that she never finds time to make up the material she has missed. After failing two important examinations the teacher sent a note to Jean's mother asking her to come to school to discuss the situation. The mother came one afternoon just before the class was dismissed and created an under-current of emotion because of her conspicuous appearance. She explained Jean's absences on the grounds that guests frequently dropped in for the evening and that Jean needed to serve refreshments. When the guests stayed late, Jean was permitted to sleep the next day. The mother's attitude was sympathetic to the teacher's request that Jean be permitted to retire early even when guests were present, and she promised wholeheartedly to co-operate. For a while Jean attended school regularly and her marks rose steadily. Then one week she was absent three days.

   What should the teacher do now?

5. What can a teacher do with a twelve-year-old girl who has learned to use her "weak heart" as an excuse for not participating in classroom experiences? The girl does have a slight weak heart condition.

6. Ethel, a high school junior, is a bright, conscientious pupil who prepares her assignments on time and participates wholeheartedly in whatever experiences the class has planned. The teacher became interested in her when she failed to pass an examination based on material which the teacher felt certain Ethel knew. During the next examination Ethel became ill and was excused from class. She was permitted to make up the test by an oral quiz given by the teacher after school hours. Ethel passed with a high score. When the next written examination occurred the teacher watched Ethel very carefully and noted that she was pale, that her hands shook, and that she was on the verge of crying. Half the period was spent wiping her eyes or staring into space. Not a single question was answered correctly.

   a. Does the situation call for a case study? Give reasons for your opinion.

   b. If a case study is not recommended, what should the teacher do when written examinations are given?

   c. If a case study is recommended, what factors in Ethel's home life may be the cause of her unusual behavior during examinations? What treatment would you suggest?

10

Developing an Integrated Program

> *To grasp the meaning of a thing, an event, or a situation, is to see it in its relations to other things; to note how it operates or functions, what consequences follow upon it, what causes it, what uses it can be put to.*
>
> JOHN DEWEY[1]

FOR A NUMBER OF YEARS there has been a marked tendency in education to abolish unrelated subjects of study as separate units and to organize a unified curriculum in terms of meaningful relationships and experiences. This unification is known as the process of integration, which is simply the formation of a whole from its parts. It is based on the assumption that the problems of living are not handed out to individuals in subject compartments, but are composed of many units so interrelated that they must first be comprehended as a whole before the separate aspects can be truly evaluated. Studying foods, clothing, consumer buying, care of children, home nursing, and the like as separate units will not necessarily produce efficient home living. Each of these subjects is important but only as it stands in relationship to the other aspects of home living. In short, all of the units ordinarily included in homemaking need to be thought of as home living and studied in relation to each other.

[1] John Dewey, *How We Think* (rev. ed.; New York: D. C. Heath & Company, 1933), p. 137.

Clarifying Terminology

Since the process of integrating subject matter is still in an experimental stage, there is some diversity in the terminology employed. In fact at the present time three terms, *correlation*, *fusion*, and *integration*, are used. The process of correlation, which was an attempt to bring out relationships among subject areas without breaking down departmental lines, was probably the first step in modifying the conventional curriculum. However, correlation was more or less superficial since it was never applied to the entire curriculum, and was followed by another attempt to revise courses through a procedure known as fusion, which combined a number of different courses into one. For example, industrial courses such as mechanical drawing, woodworking, machine shop, electricity, auto mechanics, and printing were sometimes unified into one course called shop. At the present time the term fusion has come to have a broader meaning by including in one course subjects taught in unrelated departments, such as the formation of a unit to replace a boy's class in social studies and a clothing class for girls, taught jointly by a teacher of social studies and a homemaking teacher.

The term integration is used extensively to indicate the processes which occur within the mind of the pupil when a close relationship among facts, theories, and patterns of behavior is established. Teachers may fuse or correlate subject matter in various ways, but in the final analysis integration depends upon the reactions of the individual pupil. This explanation of integration is given so that a comprehensive understanding of the term may be realized, but the use of the word in this chapter is restricted to the setting up of a unified curriculum in terms of meaningful relationships and experiences.

Organizing an Integrated Program

Attempts to modify the conventional curriculum of the past have for the most part been undertaken by departments. In practice this has often appeared to give more importance to the subject curriculum than to the needs of pupils, and to strengthen depart-

mental lines although integration within the whole school program in many cases has been wholeheartedly endorsed. All too often the head of the department or the state supervisor have done the reorganizing without consulting the homemaking teacher, which has sometimes made it difficult for her to understand and co-operate in the program. At the present time, however, more and more homemaking teachers are being given the responsibility of planning their own programs, and for this reason knowledge of integration is vitally important.

Integrating a program calls for co-operative planning, which was discussed in detail in Chapters 3, 4, and 5, and in its more advanced stages for co-operative teaching as well. (The term "co-operative teaching" refers to several teachers' giving a course together, for example, an orientation course.) In co-operative planning teachers and pupils set up goals and experiences, determine and provide suitable instructional aids, and evaluate progress in terms of the goals. School administrators, supervisors, and parents also participate in discovering the needs and interests of the pupils so that optimum growth and development may result. In some cases integrated programs have also employed co-operative teaching, which is a fairly new procedure. Its success, however, depends upon friendly and compatible teachers who can benefit from each others' ideas and experiences.

An integrated program functions on the assumption that pupil development must consider not only the solution of the pupil's personal problems arising in everyday life but also her development in respect to social progress within the environment. This means that experiences chosen should involve as many out-of-school contacts as possible, such as the use of community resources through field trips, excursions, community projects, and others, so that pupils may develop a realization of the important relationship between the school and the community environment and be able to cope successfully not only with the classroom problems but with those that arise outside of school.

Another principle of integration is to provide for continuous progress from one grade level to the next. This calls for the development at each grade level of appropriate abilities and the

acquisition of certain fundamental knowledge which when once learned need not be retaught but may simply be reviewed. The teacher may stress some of the same general goals in all grades, but she should see that the goals are formulated with more insight at the higher levels of ability and that they are studied from the different viewpoints of the needs and interests of each age level. This procedure enables pupils to enlarge their goals and experiences from year to year and thus acquire a more comprehensive knowledge of a particular area.

Probably the most important aspect of planning an integrated program is to arrange the material in such a way as to establish relationships and connections among various areas of homemaking and between homemaking and other fields of knowledge. Homemaking teachers have done this in varying degrees. Some have started with small wholes integrating the work within a single unit such as in home care of the sick or in home furnishing. An increasing number of teachers are using larger wholes — that is, unifying the work of various units of homemaking. A few homemaking teachers are co-operating in programs directed toward integrating the work of various departments within the school. In this chapter all three forms of integration are discussed.

Integration Within a Unit

The goal here is to teach homemaking in such a way that pupils will have a unified picture of what homemaking really means and not just a series of isolated facts and skills. This particular goal has been stressed throughout the book, but it may be well to give typical illustrations within certain areas such as, for example, foods, clothing, home management, consumer buying, care and guidance of children, and personal and family relations. The suggestions offered may furnish a good starting place for young teachers or for teachers who have been thinking of homemaking in terms of following a recipe or a pattern. The brief discussions which follow are intended to give only a general picture of what the majority of homemaking teachers regard as desirable trends in integration within a unit. Note that the line between what should go in one

unit and another is often indistinct, which is one of the main reasons why unifying the work of various units of homemaking — discussed on pages 229–232 — is important.

FOODS

For most groups, the students will have a more comprehensive picture when the work in foods is in terms of complete meals rather than only the preparation of individual dishes. This involves a knowledge of how to plan well-balanced meals suitable for the whole family, how to prepare a satisfactory market list, how to plan the best use of the time in the kitchen, how to keep the kitchen clean and in order, how to set the table attractively, and how to prepare and serve meals correctly. It may also include being a good hostess and making the most of what is available.

The daily work will need to be integrated in such a way that goals are frequently worked toward simultaneously rather than as separate entities. For example, the teacher may start the program with a simple meal, but not with one which the class already feels qualified to prepare. In preparation for this meal there should be as much emphasis on the other goals such as preparing a market list, keeping the kitchen clean, or using time to the best advantage, as on actual food preparation. Each successive meal may include some foods not previously prepared and probably should be considered in terms of its place in the menus for the day or even the week. The program will vary, of course, but should involve a variety of activities for each goal. For instance, the goal of actual food preparation may include the following experiences:

Preparing and serving the meal.

Demonstrations on how to prepare certain foods such as salads.

Learning proportions and principles of preparation as well as merely learning how to follow recipes.

Preparing individually or in groups foods which require special knowledge and skills, such as quick breads or pastries which may later be included in some of the meals.

Group evaluation of the work of those preparing and serving the meal.

There should be time planned for all of the groups and individuals

to get together, to report on the progress each has made, and to plan tentatively for future activities. As knowledge and skills progress, the daily program may be amplified to include all the various aspects of meal preparation recently mentioned as well as others.

CLOTHING

In clothing, emphasis needs to be on the suitable selection of ready-made clothes as well as on the construction of garments. Integration in a clothing unit might start like this:

Goals Choosing and making attractive garments:

To learn what lines, colors, and types are most becoming to me.

To know how to choose and make adaptations in patterns.

To learn to choose fabrics wisely in relation to money to be spent and garment to be made.

To be able to follow a pattern guide.

To learn to use the sewing machine effectively.

To be able to give a professional touch to my clothes.

The goal "selecting attractive ready-made garments" may be broken down in a similar way.

HOME MANAGEMENT

Some teachers believe that management should be an integral part of all units. In foods and clothing, for example, the planning of time, money, and energy are important aspects often neglected. Emphasis has been placed all too frequently on the quality of the food prepared or on the garment made. In addition to incorporating management as a part of all units, however, some teachers think it is desirable to teach a separate management unit emphasizing first-hand contacts with actual family problems. Some of these problems may grow out of the pupil's home environment, and others may be the result of contacts with families in the community. In some schools arrangements have been made with social service agencies to visit and study certain families of different income levels

throughout the school year. Reports are made in terms of the major interests of the pupils. In other localities advanced pupils arrange to supplement their school instruction by working part-time or during the summer months with social service agencies or in private families so that they may study family situations more intimately. Whatever procedure is used in teaching home management, whether as an integral part of other units or as a separate unit, the determining factor should be this: What will help the pupils do the best job of managing?

CONSUMER BUYING

Some teachers think that certain aspects of consumer buying should be taught in various units. In clothing construction there should certainly be emphasis on suitable buying techniques. In meal preparation or in entertaining, the efficient use of money is very important. It should be recognized therefore that the goal "to be able to manage money" may be applicable to a number of units such as foods, home management, and consumer buying and to personal problems in a unit in personal and family relations. However, the field of consumer buying is so extensive and the information in it so important that many teachers believe that there should still be a separate unit with work on such goals as:

To learn to evaluate advertising material.

To know how to evaluate information found on labels.

To be able to get the most for my money when buying small personal articles. (This includes buying where the class has not previously had experience.)

To be able to buy some of the things my family need, such as small kitchen equipment and so forth.

To understand the advantages and disadvantages of buying in different ways, such as cash, cash-and-carry, lay-by, and on the installment plan.

CARE AND GUIDANCE OF CHILDREN

It is especially important in teaching a unit in the care and guidance of children to do something more than just talk to the

class in terms of modern theories and techniques. Co-operative plans can sometimes be made with the class to bring neighborhood children or younger brothers and sisters into the homemaking department from time to time. Arrangements may also be made with the kindergarten department or the lower elementary grades for groups of pupils or individual pupils to participate in the school program that has already been set up for these groups. Actual out-of-school experiences with children may supplement the work in the school environment. All of these activities give the class an opportunity to experiment with the techniques they have learned in the classroom. Class goals may include the following:

To know what play materials are suitable for children at different stages of development.

To be able to teach children how to use and take care of their playthings and their belongings.

To be able to tell stories to preschool children.

To know what games are suitable for children at different age levels and to be able to direct children at play.

To be able to guide habit development in children.

To be able to plan, prepare, and serve suitable meals for small children.

To learn to select suitable clothes for children.

To know what parents expect girls to do when caring for children for pay.

PERSONAL AND FAMILY RELATIONS

As in the areas of home management and consumer buying, there is a difference of opinion as to whether this area of homemaking should be taught as a separate unit or integrated directly with all the units. Certainly personal problems are a vital aspect of such units as clothing, home management, consumer buying, and care and guidance of children; and family relations need to be stressed not only in these areas but in others as well. Yet these two subjects are so broad in scope and involve so many aspects of successful living that a separate unit may be needed to cover the ground

adequately. Both the separate and the integrated methods of attack are, therefore, favored for these subjects. Some schools have taught separate units at different grade levels — using related goals for two age groups, whose goals naturally change from one grade to the next.

My Friends and Myself *Ninth Grade*

Goals To learn to make and keep friends.

To be able to be the kind of friend I would like to have.

To be able to have boys as friends. (In the case of boys, to be able to have girls as friends.)

To understand why people of different ages have different ideas as to what is right.

To be able to feel at ease with people and to avoid embarrassing situations.

To be able to decide when a thing is right and when it is wrong.

My Family and Myself *Tenth Grade*

Goals To be able to depend on myself.

To learn how to take criticism.

To learn how to use leisure time more wisely.

To be able to understand my brothers, sisters, and friends and to be able to settle conflicts with them.

To be able to plan and carry out a project in developing better relationships with other members of the family.

To be considerate and understanding when there are relatives or guests in the home.

It should be noted that this setup is similar to that of integration within the homemaking program except that the goals are all related to personal or to family problems and do not call on foods and other areas for solutions to any marked degree.

HOME FURNISHING

Frequently this subject is taught as a separate unit because of the fact that it involves material which is not particularly adaptable to

other areas. Teachers, however, should guard against weighting the program with only good and bad principles in home furnishing. The work needs to include actual experiences in remodeling old rooms and in furnishing new ones if possible. Utilizing school facilities such as renovating a rest room or the principal's office affords practical experience in the school environment. Then again someone in the community may need help in deciding how to plan and furnish part of a home such as a recreation room in the basement or attic.

HOME CARE OF THE SICK AND FIRST AID

These subjects, too, are frequently taught as separate units since they involve specific knowledge and skills seldom learned in other homemaking units. Different goals may be set up for various age levels depending upon the interests and needs of a particular group. Suitable goals might include the following:

To improve my ability to render first aid in an emergency. *All grade levels*

To know how common diseases are spread and ways of controlling them. *All grade levels*

To develop some understanding of how community regulations help to prevent disease and accidents. *Twelfth grade level*

To improve my ability to keep myself and others in good health. *All grade levels*

To improve my ability to prevent accidents in the home. *Younger levels*

To learn how to help care for people who are ill in the home. *All grade levels*

To be able to plan, prepare, and serve foods for someone who requires a special diet. *Eleventh and twelfth grade levels*

To develop some understanding of what agencies contribute to maternal and child care. *Twelfth grade level*

A unit in home care of the sick and first aid will probably be more meaningful if plans can be made to render actual services to the school itself. Arrangements can be made with the school nurse

for certain students to help her on inspection days and to take charge of the first-aid room when the nurse is not present. Other pupils can keep health records or take charge of the school medicine cabinet. It may also be possible for certain pupils to give short talks to various groups on the prevention of accidents in the home. Any activity of this sort which offers worthwhile experience under adult guidance is beneficial training.

SCIENCE FOR THE HOME

At the present time so many of our home and personal problems call upon science for an answer that it would seem as though applied science could be taught either as a separate unit or integrated with such courses as home nursing, foods, or care and guidance of children. But whatever procedure is followed, the work will probably have more meaning if it is definitely related to homemaking. For example, a rural group might have the following problem: Mary was helping her mother scrub the chicken house with lye water. When the lye water splashed on her leg, it burned. Her mother rubbed vinegar on the burn. Was this a good thing to do?

A simple chemistry theory may then be demonstrated, namely, that when a substance giving an acid reaction is combined in water in the proper proportion with another substance giving a basic reaction, the result is a neutral substance having neither an acid nor a basic reaction, and gas is evolved in some cases. In order to have the students understand how this scientific principle functions, however, the teacher will need to point out its application in several situations, for instance, in the combination of sour milk and soda in baking. Other scientific principles which should interest pupils might include those related to learning how to control electric currents; finding out how light is reflected, absorbed, and transmitted; or understanding how refrigeration, insulation, air conditioning, or fuels operate.

ART FOR HOMEMAKING

Some teachers believe that art should be an integral part of most units, particularly in food preparation, where color combinations are important; home furnishings; clothing; entertainment prob-

lems; and consumer buying. Still others believe that, in addition, there should be a separate unit to tie together what has been learned incidentally. If there are no school administrative restrictions, the teacher should use the procedure which seems to secure the most efficient learning for her particular group of students. Some of the following goals necessarily imply a great need for art:

To choose inexpensive table covers, dishes, glassware, silverware, and vases. (This may be a part of a consumer buying unit.)

To arrange centers of interest and beauty with objects such as flowers, berries, leaves, trays, vases, and wall hangings.

To make some inexpensive household articles of pleasing design.

To learn how rooms may be attractively and conveniently arranged. (This may be integrated with home furnishing.)

To know how to arrange flowers.

To select clothes and accessories which will be becoming in color and design. (This may be integrated with a clothing unit.)

To select clothes which look well together. (This may also be integrated with clothing.)

VOCATIONS RELATED TO HOMEMAKING

The purpose of such a unit is to supply occupational information and some experiences in vocations related to homemaking. If a program of this sort is started as early as the eighth or ninth grades, pupils should be not only better prepared to accept positions upon graduation but tend to make far better adjustments in their work than would otherwise have been possible had they not had this particular experience. For example, at the eighth and ninth grade levels pupils may take temporary, part-time jobs such as caring for children, serving at special parties or in the school cafeteria, or doing simple housework. As knowledge and skills progress from year to year, these pupils will become proficient in doing different types of work in out-of-school hours until at graduation they may be prepared to accept full-time positions in various fields related to homemaking.

In planning such a program, many teachers have round it to be

more satisfactory if a short work period can be carried out at the beginning of the course. This enables pupils to set up meaningful goals and at the same time to present problems connected with the work which can be solved in class for the benefit of the whole group. Later on a second work period may be carried out, and experiences evaluated during that time. Work centers may be at the school — in the cafeteria, the nurse's office, or the kindergarten — in stores; or in homes in the community. A wide range of experiences is recommended during the lower grades with more emphasis on some particular phase of homemaking in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Here is one example of how two kinds of experiences for eleventh and twelfth grade pupils may be offered.

Goals Becoming an efficient worker in a cafeteria:

To serve food to pupils in the school cafeteria.

To serve the noon lunch to teachers in the club dining room.

To dress and conduct myself appropriately for serving the public.

To be able to use a few pieces of equipment in the kitchen, such as the vegetable peeler, the mixer, and the dishwashing machine.

To know how to clean certain equipment made of wood or chromium.

To understand the proper selection of cafeteria foods for lunches or to supplement box lunches.

Experiences

Make an observation sheet. Visit the cafeteria and record the methods of serving. Report the information to the class. Set up objectives.

Practice serving at the cafeteria counter during the noon hour. Discuss problems with the cafeteria manager, the instructor, and other pupils in the group.

Serve at various stations of the cafeteria.

Report the improvements made in one's own ability.

Serve at counter for large groups during the evening.

Goals Becoming an assistant clerk in a ready-to-wear or dry goods department:

To learn about new materials as they come on the market and the meaning of new textile terms.

To know how to recognize quality of fabrics in relation to price in order to sell wisely.

To be able to advise customers about what fabrics are suitable for the garment which they wish to make.

To improve the ability to select buttons, furs, leather, and other materials used as trimmings, suitable for various garments and customers.

To develop ability to select appropriate colors and designs for various types of people.

Experiences

Visit stores to determine the methods a clerk uses in approaching a customer and make a record of what was said during a sale.

Set up requirements for what a clerk should do to learn what a customer wants and to gain the customer's interest in the merchandise.

Observe in the stores the methods used in making out a sales report. Practice them in class.

Dramatize with other members of the class the approach to a customer.

Work in a store on Saturdays. Make a list of difficulties encountered, and bring it to the class.

In planning a vocational experience program the teacher and pupils will need to make certain preliminary arrangements. All contemplated experiences, particularly those outside the school environment, should have the approval of the principal or the supervisor. Business people, housewives, and other employers will need to be "sounded" out to see whether or not they approve of the program. If it seems possible to carry out the plan, a committee of several pupils and the teacher may secure the co-operation of the employers and make a survey of the opportunities available The committee may then discuss plans with the pupils who expect to

participate in the program. Each pupil should then discuss the matter with her parents and determine the most desirable work experience for herself. The written approval of the parents should be placed in the teacher's file. Specific plans may then be worked out with the employer and the pupil carrying out the experience.

EXCHANGE UNITS

Frequently homemaking classes have exchange units with classes in shop or agriculture. The time varies from a few days to several weeks or even months. It is especially desirable for the work program to be planned co-operatively by the pupils and the teachers in the particular units so that the work may have as much meaning as possible in the allotted time. In an exchange unit in shop some of the things girls would probably be interested in are as follows:

Goals To learn how to repair and make simple household appliances, equipment, and furnishings.

To repair radiator valves and faucets which leak.

To repair drawers that stick.

To replace window glass and repair broken or stretched window cords.

To clean and mend torn or soiled window shades.

To select and repair door and cupboard locks.

To repair simple electrical appliances.

To make simple household equipment for the home, such as self-watering flower pots, trays, corner shelves, skirt-markers, and pressing equipment.

To learn some of the fundamental principles about painting, varnishing, and waxing.

In some communities, especially in the southern states, an elective course is given jointly by the homemaking teacher and the agricultural teacher for pupils in homemaking and vocational agriculture. Each group carries out part of the work separately, but they meet from time to time for the consideration of problems of mutual concern. This unit is one which girls in many rural communities have indicated that they really want. Rural women's interests are not restricted to the interior of the home; they are

eager to acquire more scientific knowledge of outdoor activities. For example, the type of goal to be worked on separately by a group of rural girls might be "to be able to do simple landscaping." Suitable experiences might include these: (*a*) making plans for landscaping and carrying out these plans with the help of some member of the family, perhaps the father or a brother; (*b*) pruning and spraying the shrubbery around the house; (*c*) raising a flower and vegetable garden for home use. Another goal might be "to be able to distinguish the various types of apples grown in the vicinity and to learn the best uses of each." Experiences might involve (*a*) bringing in apples from near-by orchards and experimenting by cooking them in various ways and (*b*) organizing a panel discussion on types and uses of apples. Still another popular goal might be "to be able to raise chickens and to know the utility value of each breed," with experiences such as (*a*) raising a flock of chickens at home and (*b*) using check lists to determine the percentage of hens that are good layers.

Joint goals for both groups might include (*a*) to learn how to secure adequate housing and farm equipment; (*b*) to be able to provide sanitary conditions in the home; (*c*) to be able to manage the family income; (*d*) to learn how to improve family relationships.

Integration in the Homemaking Program

Instead of having a number of units in which, for example, effort is made to integrate the work in meal preparation, some teachers group the program around home problems which would have been covered in the more conventional type of units but which may become more meaningful when the program is organized to cut across subject matter areas. In other words, these home problems may utilize material from all the various phases of homemaking in their solution. Personal problems of appearance, personality, health, and food; adjustment in home and community living; marriage and the family — all these are illustrative of types of problems which may interest boys as well as girls. It is believed by many educators that if careful attention is given to centering the program on the needs and interests of the pupils and if flexibility is employed in

carrying out experiences, this type of program may be very beneficial to the growth of the pupils.

An example of tentative goals for a unit affording extensive integration within the homemaking program is described below. The more conventional type of units in which such goals are frequently included are also listed. Such a unit might be entitled "Learning How to Entertain One's Friends and Families" and would probably be best suited to a ninth or tenth grade group.

Tentative Goals	*Units in Which Goals Are Frequently Included*
To plan and carry out different kinds of home entertainment for family and friends without its costing too much.	Home management, family relations, or foods.
To be able to plan and pack attractive box lunches.	Foods.
To learn to buy food products to the best advantage.	Foods or consumer buying.
To learn to prepare and serve meals for special occasions.	Foods.
To be able to teach children how to use and take care of their playthings and their belongings.	Care and guidance of children.
To learn what sort of storybooks and pictures are desirable for children of different ages.	Care and guidance of children.
To plan work so there will be time for recreation.	Home management.
To know where to go to have a good time.	Family relations.

Integration in the School Program

Within the past few years attempts have been made throughout the country to integrate the work of various departments within

the school. This procedure has often been referred to as setting up a core curriculum. Although ordinarily based on the assumption that certain groups of subjects were fundamentally necessary for the adequate development of all pupils, the present-day program has been expanded to include what is called an experience curriculum in which pupils share in planning and carrying out a program based on the individual social and personal needs and interests of each pupil. The curriculum then becomes a series of developmental experiences by which pupils learn to meet and solve life problems.

The extent to which integration has been employed within a school program and the pattern of the program itself varies greatly from one community to another.[2] In some schools homemaking, industrial arts, and fine arts are being integrated. In other schools several different areas may be represented such as English, social studies, art, science, history, and homemaking all combined into several units such as: (1) consumer education; (2) social arts; (3) family relationships; (4) community relationships. Some schools integrate the areas into one unit calling it Home Living or Social Living. In most instances pupils are permitted to supplement the integrated program with special interest courses such as a language, music, dramatics, crafts, typewriting, or other subjects. A certain number of hours per day, usually two or three, are then set aside for the integrated program with a key teacher and several assisting teachers to interpret the subject matter in their particular fields.

While it is true that integration tends to break down narrow subject-matter units and greatly enriches each of the various areas, at the same time, to be successful, an integrated program within the school needs to follow certain policies.[3] Teachers of such courses should have a well-formulated general philosophy of education which includes a knowledge and understanding of various fields other than the one in which they are specially trained so that they may "direct" experiences in several areas. They should also

[2] Bess Goodykoontz and Beulah I. Coon, editors, *Family Living and Our Schools* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1941), pp. 140–207. Ivol Spafford, *A Functioning Program of Home Economics* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1940), pp. 202–208.

[3] H. H. Giles, S. P. McCutchen and A. N. Zechiel, *Exploring the Curriculum* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1942), pp. 58–61.

understand adolescents and be sympathetic toward them and have some training in guidance and counseling techniques. This matter of guidance calls for the same teachers staying with the students over a period of several years so that teachers may become well acquainted with each individual. Finally, the program itself must include not only a wide variety of class activities directly related to the actual life experiences of the pupils but also a comprehensive understanding of the relationships involved in these experiences.

General Remarks

As previously stated, the process of integration is in an experimental stage although each year more and more research on the subject is being made available to teachers throughout the country. At the present time, however, it is believed that the homemaking teacher should begin by integrating the work within a single unit. After she has succeeded in doing this, she will find the second type of integration — within the whole homemaking program — still more interesting. The third type, which includes integrating the program of the school, will probably be initiated by the school administration, but the homemaking teacher who has had previous experience with integration in her own field will doubtless be called upon to assist in making the program a success. But whatever process of integration is followed should be a challenge to the homemaking teacher to arrange her program in such a way that it will produce not only efficient learning but will be satisfying to all concerned.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Discuss your reactions to the trends described for integration of homemaking within various specific units. What suggestions can you offer for building a more functional program?
2. Organize a tentative program for one grade level in which there is extensive integration within the whole field of homemaking. Assume that the particular course you have in mind started with the following: "learning how to entertain one's friends and families."
3. Talk with teachers of homemaking, industrial arts, and fine arts

about integration within the arts. Report suggestions to the class and then use the accumulated suggestions as a basis for thinking through an integrated program of limited duration.

4. Investigate programs in your state in which efforts are directed toward integration within the whole school program. What is the place of homemaking in the program? Discuss additional contributions that homemaking might make to such a program.
5. Consider the probable advantages and disadvantages of each of the three types of integrated programs discussed in the chapter.

11

Planning for the Year, the Unit, the Day

Any curriculum that pupils and teachers plan together is far more likely to meet the personality requirements of all concerned in the educative process than one that is unilaterally determined.

HARTMANN[1]

RECENTLY a number of superintendents in schools where the homemaking teacher was rated as superior were asked to state what they considered an outstanding aspect of successful homemaking teaching.[2] All mentioned the ability to plan. This opinion is substantiated by the fact that foresight or anticipatory planning has long been recognized as one of the chief characteristics of intelligence. Goal-seeking procedure, going one step further, is based on the assumption that true democracy involves teacher-pupil and even teacher-pupil-parent planning of educational programs. Obviously well-organized plans flexible enough to meet the demands of changing situations furnish a working basis for successfully achieving classroom goals.

Although co-operative planning is believed to be essential in

[1] George W. Hartmann, *Educational Psychology* (New York: American Book Company, 1941), pp. 476–477.

[2] Hazel M. Hatcher, *Characteristic Differences Among Homemaking Teachers of Varying Proficiency* (Bulletin 288; Lansing, Michigan: The State Board of Control for Vocational Education, 1944).

building up an adequate school program, the teacher must take the initiative to the extent of knowing in advance possible approaches, suitable goals, worthwhile experiences, adequate evaluating devices, and available materials in terms of the needs, interests, and abilities of her students. In short, the teacher will need to plan so that her pupils may plan.

Up to this point in the book the teacher has been given a general picture of a homemaking program involving the use of various goal-seeking techniques in teaching procedures and including comprehensive high-lights on adolescent behavior. This chapter is devoted to offering detailed suggestions for a homemaking program carried through from a yearly plan down to a daily schedule. The conventional curriculum of the past was a day-to-day plan with little or no variation. The newer concept of teaching embraces more than a single day's activity and implies continuity of thought and procedure throughout the year. Each day's work contributes toward a total yearly program in which small goals eventually lead to a larger, more comprehensive whole. Under these circumstances planning becomes vitally important to the success of the program. However, the final test of good planning is that it should be workable. What may be suitable for one classroom may not work out satisfactorily for another. Successful homemaking teachers, realizing that classroom situations differ, will not attempt to apply as given any available state or city unit plans or courses of study but will adapt them to meet the needs of their own classrooms.

Desirability of Tentative, Flexible Planning

There may have been a time when educators could predict just what goals pupils would need to attain in a homemaking unit, but in the present era of rapid change in economic and social learning, this is no longer possible. At the present time pupils need to be trained to adjust themselves to a complex society in which attitudes, habits, and even skills must be constantly modified in the light of new experiences. This means that tentative, flexible planning by both the teacher and pupils is vitally necessary if pupils are to adjust successfully to new situations which may arise suddenly

and unexpectedly. Without exception the group of superior teachers who were regarded by their superintendents as excellent in planning brought the students into the picture when it came to setting goals, planning experiences, and evaluating achievement.[3] It is evident that this procedure would not have been possible unless the planning by these teachers had been tentative and at the same time flexible. A comment by one of the homemaking teachers in the study just mentioned expresses the reason for and the importance of tentative planning:

> Pupils help with planning, and I guide them, being careful to have ideas to supplement theirs when they run low or when I can give more fruitful ideas.

It is obvious that without previous planning the ideas would not have been there for the teacher to offer. However, modification of plans must be expected from time to time, since a teacher's ideas will naturally change with greater knowledge and more understanding of her group. Shifts in pupil points of view also come with development and may necessitate the changing of a program at any time. Furthermore, formal and inflexible plans stifle initiative and often take the joy out of life. Just as a person feels hampered if she cannot make adaptations in her budget plans, so too the teacher feels miserable if she has never learned to adjust to a change in class plans. The same principle holds in menu planning too. It is wise to plan in advance, but if Father unexpectedly brings home fish some night or if an article of food previously planned for is not available, one must learn not to be upset by a last-minute change.

Briefly there are certain means of achieving flexibility in planning a program which may be of assistance to the homemaking teacher:

1. Secure the wholehearted participation of the class in planning the program.
2. Keep the number of objectives fairly small and the experiences for achieving them as simple as possible.
3. Have the class understand that although the objectives must be definite, they may be modified whenever necessary.

[3] Hazel M. Hatcher, *ibid.*

Home and Community Needs

In planning a school program the homemaking teacher must not only utilize her knowledge of teaching techniques, her knowledge of different types of homemaking programs, and her general knowledge about young people but she will also need to supplement this knowledge with information about the needs of the particular community in which she expects to teach. Modern educational trends stress the importance of a co-operative relationship between the school and the community. Schools and teachers are using community resources as never before, and communities are utilizing school facilities in many new and unexpected ways. It is vitally necessary, therefore, for every homemaking teacher to know her community so that she may affiliate its interests and needs with those of the pupils, thus creating a realization that school living and community living are after all synonymous. With this realization in mind it is often possible for a new teacher to go into a community before school opens and begin a study of the community and the home life of the pupils in her homemaking classes. A comprehensive understanding will naturally come slowly and can only be built up after the teacher becomes thoroughly acquainted with the individual pupils, their parents, and the home in which they live. (A detailed discussion on teacher attitude toward the community in which she is teaching will be found in Chapter 18, "Teacher Growth and Development.") The first step, however, in studying any locality is to make a community exploration and to ascertain the lay of the land. It is well to note the following aspects:

Type of Community

If industrial, what is chiefly manufactured? What is the wage level?
If agricultural, what are the main crops?
If residential, what economic level predominates?
What nationality prevails?
What is the population?

Commercial Facilities

How many banks are there?

Is there a local newspaper? If so, how large a circulation does it have?
What types of merchandise are available?
Is there a friendly feeling among the tradespeople?

Recreational Facilities

Is there a public library or a museum?
What playgrounds, if any, are available? For what age groups?
Are there any public parks where picnics may be held?
What are the leading organizations for men and women?
Who are their officers?

Health Facilities

Is there a hospital or a clinic?
How many practicing physicians are there?
Is there a public health service?
Is there a juvenile court?

Religious Facilities

What churches are there? Is there any dissension among them?
What young people's organizations are active in the churches?

Information about the physical setup of a community can be supplemented by data from questionnaires, "logs" of how pupils spend their time, check lists of home activities, personnel records, home visits, and friendly chats with community leaders, tradespeople, and others who are active in organizations. Sometimes lack of time makes it impossible for the homemaking teacher to obtain as much information as she may desire. Thus it may often be necessary to make tentative plans on the basis of scanty knowledge with the hope of modifying the program when additional data are available. The following illustration indicates the amount of information the average homemaking teacher would be likely to secure about a community in a short time from personal observation, from talking with the school superintendent, and from the home visits to a few students representing different economic levels.

COMMUNITY SITUATION

Our town of 2000 inhabitants is located in a community near the city of Grand Rapids. The main occupation here is farming. The yearly income in the community is varied, the average being $1160 or below, with a few incomes of $2000 to $3000. There is a consolidated school, and children from the surrounding districts come in daily on the school bus. The majority of the people appear progressive and use many modern facilities. They are interested in school activities but not to the extent of dictating school policies. Although most of the people know little about the work of the homemaking department, they are willing to co-operate and help whenever asked. Home experiences are accepted and approved by the mothers of the pupils who are taking Homemaking.

DESCRIPTION OF THREE HOMES

High Income Level

The family lives in a nine-room brick house with well-kept grounds. There is an eleventh-grade boy taking Homemaking III, a seventh-grade girl just starting Homemaking, and a fifth-grade girl. There is a large recreation room with a pingpong table, radio, fireplace, and many interesting games. The house has Venetian blinds, hardwood floors, and complete electrical equipment in the kitchen. The rooms are well furnished and attractively arranged. The children are free to entertain their friends, and the house is frequently filled with young people.

Medium Income Level

This family lives on a truck farm about three miles from town. They sell a large amount of produce to Grand Rapids markets, and the family often goes shopping there. There is a twelfth-grade boy and a tenth-grade girl, both of whom have had several years of 4–H club work. The girl stopped her club work when she came to high school in order to take the courses offered in homemaking. The home is a large, old-fashioned farmhouse, but has been well kept up. There is electricity and a few electrical appliances such as a radio, a refrigerator, and a pump for running water. The furnishings are not new but are attractively arranged and kept in good condition.

Low Income Level

One of the poorest families consists of eight people living just out-

side of town on a one-acre farm. Their income is largely from the welfare department. They live in a three-room, unpainted house that is badly in need of shingles. The mother seems to be neat, but is so busy caring for the children that she has to let the housework go. The children wear poorly fitted clothes and often during the spring and summer go without shoes. There are electric lights, a small radio, a kerosene stove, and an old touring car which the father uses when he can get work. The twelve-year-old girl taking homemaking is very self-conscious about her clothes and anxious to improve her personal appearance. This girl has average ability and does her school work well, but the rest of the family appears to be below average in intelligence.

The School Setup

In order that a program may function to the best advantage for all concerned it is vitally important that the homemaking teacher integrate the information she has concerning the community with the actual conditions that exist in the school itself. Before making definite plans every teacher should find out from the principal or the head of the homemaking department exactly how much homemaking space is available; how well equipped the facilities are; when they may be used for adult evening classes; what funds are at the disposal of the department; what the daily schedule of every teacher is; and what the special school activities, such as assembly days and extracurricular and social functions, are. The teacher should record all information and if she does not memorize it, should keep it accessible. The following example illustrates the minimum amount of data about the school setup which a homemaking teacher needs to have before she begins to formulate a tentative program.

THE SCHOOL

Space and equipment. The facilities of the school are good. There are two laboratories. The one for work in foods is designed with unit kitchens. The one for work in clothing is equipped with low tables, an ironing board and iron, a section for fitting (which includes a full-length mirror), a bed in one corner, and closets for

storage. The furnished living-and-dining room provides ample space for working on other home living problems. The cafeteria is separate from the homemaking rooms and is well arranged and equipped.

Funds. The school receives reimbursement from vocational funds for both homemaking and agriculture. About $160 is available for materials. (Since the total enrollment in the five homemaking classes is 100, that is an average of $1.60 per pupil.)

Duration of program. The program is nine and a half months in length. Summer home experiences are part of the program at the senior-high-school level.

Homemaking Teacher's Daily Schedule

Time	*Monday*	*Tuesday*	*Wednesday*	*Thursday*	*Friday*
8:45	Conference	Conference	Conference	Conference	Conference
9:30	Homemaking I	Homemaking I	Homemaking I	Homemaking I	Homemaking I
10:15	Homemaking I	Homemaking I	Homemaking I	Homemaking I	Homemaking I
11:00	Homemaking III*	Homemaking III	Homemaking III	Homemaking III	Homemaking III
11:45			Noon		
12:45	Grade 7	Grade 7	Grade 7	Grade 7	Free
1:30	Grade 8	Grade 8	Grade 8	Grade 8	Free
2:15	Homemaking II	Homemaking II	Homemaking II	Homemaking II	Homemaking II
3:00	Homemaking II	Homemaking II	Homemaking II	Homemaking II	Homemaking II
3:45	School dismissed				

* In this school Homemaking III is taught to eleventh and twelfth grade girls.

Special School Activities

Physical education:

School teams for boys:
- Football
- Basketball
- Baseball
- Track

Inter-school:
- Basketball

School organizations:
- Home Economics Club
- Future Farmers of America
- Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts
- 4-H Club
- Glee Club
- Band

Dramatics:
- Senior play in fall
- Junior play in spring
- One-act plays for assemblies
- Operetta (grade and high school combined)

Assemblies:
- Every Friday

Annual banquets:
- Football (November)
- P. T. A. (January)
- Junior-Senior (June)

Other information. The superintendent is interested in vocational homemaking work and tries with the help of the faculty to stimulate interest among the townspeople.

In order to complete the source materials on which to base a successful program, another area needs preliminary investigation: the students themselves. Information as to what they need and what they are interested in will obviously be available long before the homemaking teacher is able to evaluate individual abilities. Much of the student information can be obtained by talking informally to as many high-school girls as possible before the opening of school. Contacts may be made through home visits or at social affairs in the community. The following examples illustrate the amount of information which a new teacher might obtain before the opening of the school year:

THE STUDENTS

The *seventh- and eighth-grade* students want help in making friends. They need some simple foods and clothing work. Since these pupils probably help their mothers care for the house, they will also need some instruction in care of the house, particularly their own room. Most of the girls take care of children for money and are eager for some sort of instruction in child care.

The *ninth-grade* pupils are interested in improving themselves by wardrobe selection and making their own rooms attractive. They want work on clothing construction and also in foods for the family, since most of them help with the cooking and many with the canning. These pupils are socially active and need help in making friends in high school and in entertaining them.

The *tenth-grade* students want some related art to help them improve the appearance of their clothing. Many of them are interested in clothing for their whole family, particularly their mothers. They are more interested than ever in food from the standpoint of taking on the whole responsibility of planning, preparing, and serving some of the meals. They are also greatly concerned over their conduct when with other persons, par-

ticularly boys, and need help in becoming at ease in social situations.

The *eleventh- and twelfth-grade* pupils need work that will help them in family life, since the majority of the girls will be getting married soon after they finish school. These girls and boys need help in consumer buying because they now purchase their own clothing. Those who expect to work after finishing school will need assistance in securing and keeping a job. All the girls want work in quantity cookery, and a unit in hot lunches will provide this experience. They also need information on how to utilize old material. A unit in making things over would be helpful to them. Of course, they need assistance in planning a home, for many of them will soon be having their own homes and families.

Preliminary student information will necessarily be somewhat general in character. The point to keep in mind is that all information, whether it concerns the community, the school setup, or the students, should first of all be carefully evaluated and then integrated in such a way that the best interests of all will be served. This means organizing common needs and interests into a unified whole which will include experiences of maximum value to the learner and be applicable to various age levels.

Planning for the School Year

Once the teacher has formulated a general picture of a program that will benefit both the pupils and the community, it then becomes her responsibility to provide a background or to set the stage as it were so that the pupils themselves will be able to obtain a more or less comprehensive picture of what would be desirable and possible during the school year. Only in this way will they be able to assist with the details of planning.

Helping Pupils Obtain a Comprehensive Picture

The following suggestions for helping pupils get a bird's-eye view of the year are applicable to the average classroom:

An Exhibit

An exhibit is always interesting and because of its objective nature offers endless opportunities for "putting across" ideas that would be difficult for pupils to assimilate any other way. What makes exhibit procedure especially practical is that the work can be done by the pupils themselves. For example, third year students can set up an exhibit for a second year group and a second year group for the first year class, each group, of course, illustrating ideas on the major units deemed desirable for the year's program. In this way pupils who have already covered certain areas of homemaking can learn to evaluate past experiences and thus recommend changes which would improve the unit. For further suggestions see Chapter 17, "Interpreting Homemaking Education to Others," pages 365–368.

Skits and Plays

Many skits and plays are already on the market, while others may be developed by pupils with creative writing ability. Giving skits and plays which show various phases of homemaking is a type of activity that is especially popular with adolescents; and many times personal situations that are difficult for the teacher to stress may be dramatized to excellent advantage with no resentment from the class. Types of skits or plays might include acceptable and unacceptable social customs at a dance, at a restaurant, or in other public places where good and poor behavior may be differentiated; or they may portray phases of family life such as relationships between brother and sister, a problem involving a younger and an older sister, or a difference of opinion between mother and daughter. However, all skits and plays should try to present a picture of certain units which seem to be desirable in the yearly program.

Talks by Pupils

Talks may be used in two ways. Students who have already had homemaking may tell the class how they have benefited by the courses they have taken. Or pupils may interview these students and then submit an oral report on the results of the interview.

Clippings

The procedure of having pupils read clippings from newspapers and magazines written by students in other schools, telling what they have done and what homemaking means to them, speaks for itself. It is especially suitable for pupils who have less than average intelligence and are apt to lack creative ability.

Lists of Vocations

Each year as new business opportunities are opening up to women, vocational aspects of homemaking become more and more interesting to high-school students. The teacher and pupils may list various vocations open to high-school graduates and then decide how homemaking may help in each field. This procedure has endless possibilities for all grades and for all levels of ability, but is particularly good for the last year of high school.

Pretests

If pretests, such as performance tests in various areas of homemaking, are given for diagnostic purposes to reveal existing knowledge and abilities, they may serve as valuable aids in determining just what should be included in a yearly program. If the results of the tests are discussed with the pupils as a group and deficiencies pointed out, planning a program takes on a new meaning for everyone concerned.

Case Studies of Hypothetical Pupils

Case study techniques to indicate to pupils why certain phases of training are necessary have been used with excellent results. Such studies, however, must be based on real life situations, must be clearly and concisely stated, and should include sufficient pertinent data so that the class may make worthwhile recommendations without too much supposition of facts. A clever teacher may casually present through a hypothetical case study a most intimate social problem such as petting which could not be discussed impersonally any other way. But unless such studies are carefully prepared in advance and bear a direct relationship to the class as a whole, their influence will be negligible.

Parents' Ideas

As previously stated, parents can sometimes offer many valuable suggestions for various goals and experiences needed by their children which might otherwise go unrecognized by the teacher and even by the pupils themselves. Pupils may consult their parents and bring in a list of suggestions, or the teacher may ask parents to fill out a questionnaire regarding a yearly program. Parents may also be asked to come into the planning group.

Whatever procedure is used, pupils should be made to feel that planning the program has been a co-operative affair. Educators are realizing as never before that adolescents participate more enthusiastically in an activity when they have a share in deciding what shall be done. This opinion is borne out by remarks from the pupils themselves. Several groups of high-school students recently interviewed said:

> At the beginning of the year we helped plan our whole program. We even planned how long we'd spend on each thing. We help from day to day, too. Our last teacher just told us what to do. We like this way better.[4]

SUGGESTIONS FOR ORGANIZING THE PROGRAM

Just how much detail the initial planning will involve may vary with the teacher of the group. As a general rule, pupils can see a rather broad picture of the plan for the whole year but not the details of individual parts and units. This situation, however, should not prevent teachers from encouraging pupils to set up definite goals early in the year even though the means of achieving these goals are not clearly perceived. Once the "whole" is understood, the units or parts leading to the whole take on form and meaning as growth and comprehension increases. The teacher, on the other hand, having a much broader picture of a yearly program, may decide that she needs to make tentative plans complete as to goals and experiences early in the year. More and more teachers are doing this, since it tends to give unity and coherence to any program.

[4] Hazel M. Hatcher, *ibid.*

Some teachers may find it helpful to designate an approximate time distribution for the program although others may decide that the pupils themselves should learn to work out a time schedule. The question whether or not the class needs to help plan every little detail often arises, too. One successful teacher's answer to this question was: "For big things they help. Sometimes on little things I have to go ahead."

Probably the most effective way of visualizing a yearly program is for the teacher and pupils to set up a tentative calendar for the school year. The form may vary for different groups, but any plan which is clear to the teacher and the class should be acceptable. Whatever is agreed upon should be posted for reference with the understanding that the plans are only tentative and may be modified if pupils so desire. The calendars on pages 248 and 249 are merely suggestions of how a yearly plan may be worked out.

Planning for the Unit

In planning for each unit much the same procedure takes place as in planning for the year, except that planning is limited to an area in which pupils will work for a period of several weeks or even a few days. This procedure makes it possible not only to work out specific aspects of the program more in detail but also to give full consideration to individual needs, interests, and abilities.

Much of the unit planning can be done co-operatively from week to week and day to day as practical situations arise. The brighter the group, the more detailed the planning may be in advance, but no matter what the level of ability is, the teacher and the class will need to realize that certain things such as field trips and various illustrative materials will have to be planned for in advance or else omitted from the unit. The burden of responsibility, however, rests on the teacher. If she expects to be a competent guide to the class, she will need to look ahead of her pupils. In order to conserve their time and energy, she should know in advance what materials are available and should be prepared to give the class suggestions on where to secure supplementary information and source material. It is only by having an extensive knowledge of the goals

CALENDAR FOR SEVENTH- AND EIGHTH-GRADE HOMEMAKING CLASSES[1]

<table>
<tr><td>Weeks —</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td><td>5</td><td>6</td><td>7</td><td>8</td><td>9</td><td>10</td><td>11</td><td>12</td><td>13</td><td>14</td><td>15</td><td>16</td><td>17</td><td>18</td><td>19</td><td>20</td><td>21</td><td>22</td><td>23</td><td>24</td><td>25</td><td>26</td><td>27</td><td>28</td><td>29</td><td>30</td><td>31</td><td>32</td><td>33</td><td>34</td><td>35</td><td>36</td></tr>
<tr><td>Seventh Grade</td><td rowspan="2">Organization of Work 1 week</td><td colspan="4">Getting Acquainted Making Friends — Boys and Girls 4 weeks</td><td colspan="12">Food for Health (Probably concentrate on school luncheons) 12 weeks</td><td colspan="5">Helping at Home — Sharing Home Life 5 weeks</td><td colspan="14">Helping with My Clothes 14 weeks</td></tr>
<tr><td>Eighth Grade</td><td colspan="8">Enjoying Small Children — Care of Emergencies 8 weeks</td><td colspan="4">Looking Our Best 4 weeks</td><td colspan="9">Choosing Clothes for the Junior Miss 9 weeks</td><td colspan="4">Care of My Clothes 4 weeks</td><td colspan="10">Helping with Family Meals (Probably concentrate on suppers) 10 weeks</td></tr>
</table>

[1] Classes meet twice a week.

CALENDAR FOR SENIOR–HIGH–SCHOOL HOMEMAKING CLASSES

<table>
<tr><th>Weeks —</th><th>1</th><th>2</th><th>3</th><th>4</th><th>5</th><th>6</th><th>7</th><th>8</th><th>9</th><th>10</th><th>11</th><th>12</th><th>13</th><th>14</th><th>15</th><th>16</th><th>17</th><th>18</th><th>19</th><th>20</th><th>21</th><th>22</th><th>23</th><th>24</th><th>25</th><th>26</th><th>27</th><th>28</th><th>29</th><th>30</th><th>31</th><th>32</th><th>33</th><th>34</th><th>35</th><th>36</th></tr>
<tr><td>Home-making I</td><td colspan="1">Let's Get Acquainted
1 week</td><td colspan="12">What Foods Should I Eat to Be and Stay Healthy?
1. Preserving Foods for Family Use
2. Planning, Preparing, and Serving Simple Meals
12 weeks</td><td colspan="3">How Can I Make the Holiday Season a Gay One?
3 weeks</td><td colspan="2">First Aid First, Not Second
2 weeks</td><td colspan="14">Let's Look at "Me"
1. The Well-Groomed Student
2. Planning and Keeping My Personal Accounts
3. Planning, Making, and Buying Clothes
14 weeks</td><td colspan="4">My Own Room
4 weeks</td></tr>
<tr><td>Home-making II</td><td colspan="2">How Does Art Help in My Clothing Problems? 2 weeks</td><td colspan="11">The Clothing Needs of My Family
11 weeks</td><td colspan="5">How Can I Make a Child's Life Happier?
5 weeks</td><td colspan="12">The Food for One Man's Family
12 weeks</td><td colspan="6">My Conduct When with Others
6 weeks</td></tr>
<tr><td>Home-making III</td><td colspan="3">Beauty in the Home and in the Community
3 weeks</td><td colspan="5">Housing Problems and Furnishing a Home
5 weeks</td><td colspan="8">Special Food and Nutrition (Entertaining, fancy foods, special diets, the hot lunch)
8 weeks</td><td colspan="2">Let's Recreate (Family and community recreation) 2 weeks</td><td colspan="8">Special Clothing Problems (Make-over problems for one's self or others)
8 weeks</td><td colspan="5">As a Consumer
5 weeks</td><td colspan="3">The Job for Me
3 weeks</td><td colspan="2">How Can I Make My Future Home Life a Happy and Successful One? 2 weeks</td></tr>
</table>

to be achieved and of the variety of experiences which lead to these goals that the teacher can evaluate the suggestions made by the class. Detailed procedure in planning goals and experiences have already been discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, but in order to bring out the relationship between the yearly program and the unit itself the following example in Homemaking I will serve to illustrate how one may be developed in detail from the other. The material used is based on the calendar for Homemaking I, page 248.

Course Outline for Homemaking I

Let's Get Acquainted.................................. 1 week

- To get acquainted with one another.
- To get acquainted with the department and the equipment.
- To find out what I would like to learn about homemaking.

What Foods Should I Eat to Be and Stay Healthy?........... 12 weeks

- Preserving foods for family use (3 weeks)
  - To know the different methods of preserving foods and when to use them.
  - To find out why it is sometimes desirable to preserve foods at home.
  - To be able to preserve foods successfully.
- Planning, preparing, and serving simple meals (9 weeks)
  - To know what food we should eat to keep well.
  - To plan balanced meals.
  - To prepare a satisfactory market list.
  - To plan the best use of time in the kitchen.
  - To set the table attractively and correctly.
  - To be able to prepare the meals as planned.
  - To serve meals correctly.
  - To be well mannered at the table.

How Can I Make the Holiday Season a Gay One?........... 3 weeks

- To be able to plan ways in which we can make holidays happier for others.
- To be able to apply what we already know about art in making inexpensive and attractive articles to be used for gifts.
- To be able to plan and wrap gift packages attractively and inexpensively.
- To be able to see the possibilities of the dime store as a shopping place for gifts.
- To learn more about planning and preparing for the holidays so that we may enjoy them.

First Aid First, Not Second.............................. 2 weeks

To be able to render first aid in an emergency.

To learn how to care for anyone who is ill in the home.

To know what foods are good for sick people and how to prepare and serve them attractively.

To know something about communicable diseases and their control.

Let's Look at Me.. 14 weeks

The well-groomed girl (4 weeks)

To learn the importance of personal appearance in relation to school and social life.

To learn how to arrange hair becomingly and how to care for it.

To improve the appearance of my face and complexion.

To improve the appearance of my hands and nails.

To improve the appearance of my teeth.

To learn how to care better for my body.

To improve my posture.

To be able to care for my clothes.

To learn what colors and type of clothes I should wear.

To learn how to select clothes that look well together.

Planning and keeping my personal accounts (2 weeks)

To know how to manage my money.

To learn how to keep track of what I spend.

To know what my share of the family income is.

Planning, making, and buying clothes (8 weeks)

To learn how to judge quality of fabric and workmanship in ready-made dresses in order to be able to decide whether to buy them.

To learn how to make garments (cotton) for myself.

To learn to make simple pattern alterations.

To be able to select suitable fabric for the design selected.

My Own Room... 4 weeks

To be able to arrange my room so that it can be used for study, entertaining, carrying on a hobby, and sleeping.

To be able to arrange a bedroom so that it can be shared by two or more people.

To be able to choose decorative objects for my room.

To learn new and easy methods of caring for walls, floors, furniture, etc.

Planning for the Day

Once the program for the year and the unit has been carefully set up, it then becomes necessary to visualize a plan for the day. The superior homemaking teacher has a mental picture of each class before she commences the work. This picture involves much more than just a lesson plan. It takes on the proportions of a panorama in which pupils are viewed not only as a group but as individuals with special needs and interests. It includes the goals toward which pupils are working, evaluating devices best suited to measure progress toward these goals, and adequate experiences to be carried out in the school, the home, or the community. Although knowledge of equipment and materials also comprise an important part of the total picture, less tangible aspects such as possible difficulties and their solutions should be included.

Inexperienced teachers may wonder how all this information can be mentally tabulated to form a composite picture clear enough to produce a daily comprehensive plan for each class. The situation, however, is not as difficult as it may first appear since the teacher's picture for the day is seldom if ever visualized in every detail. She may, for example, consider holding a class discussion for a particular lesson. Keeping in mind the goal for the day, she formulates in advance not only key questions which stimulate thought and interest but all possible answers as well. This is done in order to guide the discussion and keep it in line with the goal to be achieved. If she has material to illustrate certain aspects of the discussion, the teacher considers when and how this material may be best presented. Her plan of operation finally includes some measure of evaluating the results of the discussion — possibly an outline on the board of the outstanding points or perhaps a summary by the teacher or one of the students. A general plan is all that needs to be thought out in advance by the teacher. The students are then encouraged to take the initiative in working out the details as the discussion progresses. The same techniques may be applied to a laboratory lesson, a demonstration, directed study, a field trip, or other class activities. Whatever types are used should be the ones most helpful to the achievement of the goals under consideration.

Although variety in classroom procedure is generally recommended since it tends to motivate the learning process by sustaining interest in the work at hand, care should be taken not to neglect the time factor of the daily lesson. This responsibility rests primarily on the teacher, who may determine the approximate time allotted to each activity or who may desire to teach the class to formulate approximate time schedules. The following lesson plan for a fifty-five-minute period may be considered adequate for a junior-high-school class in a city school working on goals related to the handling of money.

Teacher-pupil goal: To develop good manners while shopping.

Procedure:

1. Several girls may present a play on shopping manners. (Girls who finish ahead of the group may volunteer to do this.)
   Time: 15 minutes (approximately)

2. Class then discusses good and bad shopping manners as shown in the play. Teacher tells interesting incidents about shopping. Members of the class will probably contribute various experiences. Group decides, "What would you have done?"
   Time: 15 minutes (approximately)

3. Pupils make plans for observing customers in stores and report back to class on the following day. (Arrangements are made in advance with the stores.)
   Time: 15 minutes (approximately)

4. In planning for the next lesson the group decides that each pupil will first give the results of her observation and that then the group will summarize good and poor shopping manners.
   Time: 10 minutes (approximately)

The keynote, however, to a successful daily program lies in the degree to which the teacher can visualize just how much the daily lesson plan will contribute to the main goals of the yearly program. It is the successful achievement of these small segments which lead eventually to a completed whole. This means that continuity of subject matter is also important and that each lesson should bear a definite relationship to the previous one. Fragmentary knowledge has little value unless linked to a definite whole. In many instances this relationship may have to be pointed out to the class, but learning becomes more efficient when pupils can be led to recognize it themselves.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. If you were elected to the position of homemaking teacher in a community very different from your community, discuss the procedure by which you would help the homemaking classes in this new community plan a tentative program for the year.
2. Describe a high-school class in homemaking with which you are familiar. Assuming that the class has already made a general plan for the year, how would you help the group to plan tentatively the goals for a certain part of the program such as child development?
3. Discuss each of the daily lesson plans which follow. Revise each one according to class suggestions for improvement.

I. *Foamy Omelets* 10:45–12:15 Ninth grade

Problem: To teach a new type of egg cookery.
How to cut and fold egg whites.

Time Schedule:	*Market Order*
10:45 Put on aprons and wash hands	1 doz. eggs
10:55 Review eggs: their structure and selection	1 loaf bread
11:00 Cook omelet and toast (review)	¼ lb. butter
11:50 Serve, compare, and eat omelets	
12:00 Summary; notebook work on omelets; assignment for next day	

II. *Preparation of Soft and Baked Custards* (Follows Lesson I above)

1. Review food value of milk and eggs.
2. Review temperature for cooking milk and eggs.
3. Points in making:
   (*a*) Egg beaten slightly
   (*b*) Milk added to egg
   (*c*) Cooked at low temperature

4. General proportions for making custards
5. Assignment:
   Odd numbers, make one third of the recipe on page 45
   Even numbers, make one fourth of the recipe on page 46
6. Display and discussion.
   When would one serve baked custards? Soft custards?
   Why does this custard have water on top?

III. *Clothing* 1:15–2:45 Ninth grade

1. Score card for pajamas on board.
2. Girls score pajamas.
3. Put ratings on board while they put on pajamas.
4. Vote on garments for best fitting.
5. Select five best.
6. Girls point out their mistakes and show how they could improve the pajamas.
7. Assign: Chapter on pajamas for review and test.

IV. *Care of Children* 2:35–3:30 Tenth grade

Yesterday's class decided they wanted to start a nursery school. Problem for day is what they need to study in order to have school.

1. Class set up things they will have to do to prepare room for children.
2. Class decide what they will have to study in order to run nursery.
3. Class divide into groups and make lists of materials needed to prepare room.

V. *Care of Children* (Follows Lesson IV above)

Class start study of toys to stimulate more interest.

1. Set up standards for good toys.
2. Decide they want to make toys because good toys are too expensive.
3. Work out what toys to make and materials needed.

12

Enriching Home Experiences

Happiness lies not in the mere possession of money; it lies in the joy of achievement; in the thrill of creative effort.

FRANKLIN DELANO ROOSEVELT

HOME EXPERIENCES for pupils have long been an integral part of homemaking classes. The procedure is based on the assumption that all education is more or less a preparation for family life and that knowledge acquired in the classroom should be expanded and developed to meet the needs and interests of the pupils in the home. While the traditional concept of education concerned itself primarily with factual knowledge which had little or no connection with anything outside the school, the newer methodology of teaching tends to stress techniques which give meaning to life not only in the classroom but in the out-of-school environment as well. The school then becomes a form of social living which encourages the development of its pupils by broadening the area of their experiences.

Goal Seeking in Home Experiences

As previously stated, learning is a process of reconstructing knowledge and experience. This simply means that the teacher starts with the knowledge and experience which the pupil already possesses and enlarges and enriches these factors. In order to secure effective learning the teacher develops goal-seeking techniques which involve pupil-teacher-parent participation in choosing, achieving, and evaluating progress toward definite objectives.

This program implies that the teacher must learn the needs and interests of the individual pupil and must, therefore, acquire knowledge not only of the classroom demands of her pupils but of their home environment as well. The pupil's interests and needs usually stimulate an urge toward some sort of activity, and when the teacher recognizes and guides this impulse, it may serve as a basis for the pupil's home experiences. Moreover, in order to meet life's problems effectively, it is essential that pupils become active participants in applying the knowledge and skills which they have acquired in the classroom to outside situations. In this way pupils learn to attack new problems, to meet new situations, and to solve otherwise insurmountable difficulties. The interpretation of the learning process rests on this assumption.

Types of Home Experiences

The relationship between knowledge and skills learned in school and the activities of everyday home life is exemplified in two types of home experiences which are prevalent in many communities throughout our country. One, known as *home practice*, is merely a repetition of an activity already carried out in the classroom. In most cases it is of a simple nature involving little or no planning, as, for example, practice in making a bed after a demonstration has been given in school. The other type, called a *home experience*, a *home experience project*, or possibly a *home project*, is of a more intricate nature involving a piece of work either in a home activity or a social responsibility which pupils recognize as being of value to themselves and to their families. It is an experience which the students desire, plan over a period of time, carry out, and evaluate under the supervision of the teacher and sometimes of the parents.

The fact that some homemaking teachers are employed on a ten or eleven month basis makes it possible for certain pupils to carry on home experiences under supervision beyond the regular school year. This additional period gives pupils an opportunity to do a thorough piece of work which might otherwise be difficult due to the limited amount of extra time some pupils have during the school year. Thus a problem started with a minimum amount of

participation at the beginning of the fall term may be so arranged as to culminate into maximum participation during the summer months. The results of long-term experiences have high educational value because they not only offer pupils ample opportunity to correct and profit by mistakes that may have been made but permit pupils to see for themselves the extent of their growth and development. A year-round problem which goes hand in hand with regular school work makes for efficiency in learning since by constant repetition in one form or another it fosters retention of what is learned in the classroom.

On the other hand, many worth-while experiences are carried on only during the summer months. These summer projects are intensive in nature and may be more varied in character than the long-term experiences. Under efficient supervision they may be very valuable as teaching mediums.

The Value of Home Experiences

The value of home experiences is indicated in the far-reaching sphere of influence they exert upon the pupils, the family, and the community in which they function.

THE INDIVIDUAL PUPIL

One of the chief values of home experiences is that they provide for self-expression. In a crowded classroom this is possible only within certain limits. Few classrooms are equipped with facilities for handling the various problems which are necessary for the full development of personality. In view of the modern trend in education toward recognizing individual differences and making allowances for them, it seems reasonable for the teacher to co-operate with the pupils and to assist them in providing ways and means by which they may develop their potentialities in their own way by putting into actual practice the knowledge and skills they have acquired in the classroom. Home experiences encourage initiative and creative effort and assist pupils in making a critical evaluation not only of themselves but also of the extent to which their goals have been attained. As we learn more about human nature, we are

bound to recognize the significance of self-expression in the total process of individual growth.

Another equally important value of home experiences is the opportunity they provide for interaction with people other than those of one's own age. Since education is a social process, it is necessary for adolescents to learn to adapt themselves to both younger and older people. Classroom experiences offer valuable training in developing co-operation among pupils in the same environment under similar situations, but life's problems are concerned with other human relationships than those represented in the school environment. Classroom experiences need to be broadened and carried over into the home, where more varied types of activity will develop the realization that one's personal happiness and success in life are almost always dependent upon the success and happiness of others. Ability to respect the rights of others, to recognize individual differences, and to make allowances for them is just as important in the home as in the classroom, perhaps even more so because well-adjusted home relationships have a profound influence on adequate classroom adjustment.

THE FAMILY

Home experiences also tend to bring about unification of the family group. The members of a stable, happy family have in the main much the same values, attitudes, and interests even though a wide age range may exist in the group itself. At the present time there is an increasing awareness of the need to recognize more fully the co-operative function which each member must perform within the home environment if family unity is to be maintained. For instance, the instability of many families is due in a large measure to failure on the part of parents to keep abreast of the times or to accept economic and social changes. This has caused a strained parent-child relationship and has led not necessarily to a disorganization of the family system but to a breaking up of family groups with an increasing demand for individualism within the home itself. Consider a family in which the mother has always done her own housework. Years of experience have made it possible for her to perform the household tasks with minimum time and effort.

Even when the children are older and able to help her, she resents interference with an established routine. Twelve-year-old Mary would like to bake a cake or a batch of cookies on Saturdays, but she might waste precious ingredients or mess up the kitchen; so Mary is told she is too young to cook and must run out and play. As time goes on Mary loses interest in cooking at home and directs her energy toward other activities more often than not outside the home. Or consider parents who insist that they cannot afford more modern home furnishings. The old-fashioned sofa is still good; so why not continue to use it just as it is? The chairs are comfortable even though the upholstering is a bit faded. Newfangled notions about modern home furnishings being much more attractive than what you have been using all these years and being essential to the happiness of the family is "poppycock." Sixteen-year-old Marjorie should accept her home as it is and not try to change it. But Marjorie does not accept it and entertains her boy friend in the park or at a questionable roadhouse.

It is believed that these situations and others like them can be avoided or remedied to a great extent by home experiences which require a sharing between parents and their children of household responsibilities. Part of the responsibility may include a sharing of the family budget, the purchase of household supplies, or the choosing of clothes for various members of the family. These activities not only help adolescents to acquire a more comprehensive attitude toward economic conditions, but also to increase their ability in buying. This closer contact gives the parents an opportunity to pass on to their children knowledge and skills which involve little or no change from generation to generation. It permits the children to demonstrate to their parents modern techniques and procedures which they have learned in the classroom. Home experiences based on willing participation and co-operation in household tasks tend to establish a reciprocal relationship between parents and their children which provides for an interchange of opinions and attitudes not otherwise possible.

THE COMMUNITY

Many home experiences include the improvement of community

conditions and set an excellent example to the citizens of what can be accomplished with a little extra time and effort. City councilmen or members of the school board are apt to be more tolerant toward young people's demands for recreational facilities if they can be made to realize that these young people are vitally interested in improving and protecting the community in which they live. Any project that brings about closer relationship between the older and younger generation is bound to have unlimited value.

Initiating a Home Experience Program

Every home experience program which is to function smoothly and adequately calls for a certain amount of preparatory work by the teacher. In most cases the same general suggestions will apply to all communities in which such a program is to be started. It is believed that maximum results will be obtained if the following ideas are given careful consideration.

GETTING ACQUAINTED WITH PUPILS, PARENTS, AND THE COMMUNITY

It is fairly obvious that if a teacher contemplates guiding the class in home experiences, she must know her pupils intimately. She needs, for instance, to know what they enjoy doing, how they use their spare time, how much housework they are required to do a day, how far they live from school, and how much time is available for home project work. Knowledge of the intellectual and physical capacities of her students is also important if the experiences are to be successfully carried out. Pupils should not be encouraged in work which is beyond their ability lest they become unduly discouraged and lose interest before the work is completed. The importance of all this information should not be underestimated. All data should be carefully evaluated by the teacher before individual conferences take place so that the teacher may be certain that the experiences chosen will be worth while to the pupils and to their families.

Equally important is the matter of becoming acquainted with the parents as well as the pupils. It is inadvisable for the teacher and the pupil to co-ordinate classroom and home experiences with-

out consulting one or both parents. Parental co-operation is important if adequate home conditions and suitable facilities for carrying out the project are to be made available to the pupil. Parents often resent what they consider to be school interference in household management, but when personally consulted and given a chance to participate in a definite plan of action, their attitude often changes to one of marked approval. Furthermore, although high standards of workmanship may have been established and most carefully followed in the classroom, it is often difficult for pupils to maintain the same standards in the home unless they are constantly observed and unless the parents are willing to co-operate in perpetuating these classroom ideals. Habits of long duration are difficult to change, especially in adults; but many parents are favorably disposed toward new techniques if they can be made to see the wisdom of them. Most mothers take a natural pride in their children's accomplishments, and if they can be led to feel that they, also, are contributing toward a program which will help develop the children's abilities, they are more likely to be sympathetic toward a particular home experience. Getting well acquainted with the parents also involves knowing what the physical conditions of the home are, how many members there are, what their ages are, what the various occupations of the wage earners are, and how each home experience will fit into the family plans and habits. All this information can best be obtained by visiting the home, by establishing friendly relationships with its members, and by making them feel that the school is genuinely interested in the children's development. Informal contacts with the pupil and the family should start early in the semester. Walking home with a pupil, encouraging the parents to visit the classroom, and attending fairs, P.T.A. meetings, teas, church gatherings, and athletic activities at which pupils or parents may be present afford opportunity for contacts which will pave the way for more extensive connections later on. Every home experience should be based on teacher-pupil-parent co-operation.

It is also necessary for the teacher to know and understand the community in which the home experience program is to be carried on. Many projects involve the use of facilities outside the home

and often include activities that affect community life. (See pages 382–389 in Chapter 18, "Teacher Growth and Development," for a more extensive discussion of the relationship between the teacher and the community in which she teaches.)

All the information obtained in connection with the pupil and the family should be kept for future use and should be recorded in a separate file for each pupil. This facilitates matters when it comes to individual conferences later on and makes it possible for the teacher to evaluate more easily the circumstances surrounding each pupil.

SETTING UP TENTATIVE HOME EXPERIENCES

Just as the teacher needs to set up tentative goals and experiences for the classroom work, so should she have in mind many different kinds of home experiences related to these goals and suitable for the various types of personalities in her classroom before she introduces the idea of home experiences to the pupils. Many pupils will have ideas of their own, but others will depend upon the teacher, at least when the idea of home experiences is new to them. Some of the experiences which the teacher has planned may not appeal to the pupils, some may prove to be too difficult to carry out in the allotted time, and others may not be suited to the economic status of a particular pupil. All suggestions should be of a tentative nature, flexible and easily adaptable to the different mental and socio-economic levels of the class. However, if the area of the experience is broad enough in scope, it is possible to provide for all the factors just mentioned. For example, take the goal "to make your kitchen sing." This is suitable for all abilities and for all socio-economic levels. It may serve as a home experience, or certain portions of it may be suitable. The following outline will indicate the extent to which a single goal may be expanded to meet the needs and interests of the individual pupils.

SUGGESTIONS FOR POSSIBLE HOME EXPERIENCES

Goal: Make your kitchen sing.

Experiences:

1. Arrange pantry shelves and cupboards.
   (*a*) Paint cans for canisters.

(*b*) Arrange and label steps in a cupboard on which spices may be set in a convenient way.

2. Arrange drawers conveniently.
   (*a*) Divide drawers for silverware.
   (*b*) Divide drawers for kitchen utensils.
   (*c*) Make a knife rack.
3. Paint kitchen cupboards.
4. Draw a floor plan of the kitchen and rearrange the equipment.
5. Arrange for the proper storage of staples, canned goods, and fresh goods.

Goal: Rearrange the cellar.

Experiences:

1. Label canned goods.
   (*a*) Product
   (*b*) Date
2. Arrange products on shelves for convenience.
3. Plan and make bins for the proper storage of fresh fruits and vegetables.
4. Plan and arrange a cupboard for the storage of laundry supplies and stain-removal equipment.
5. Arrange laundry equipment to save time and energy.
   (*a*) Fix stands for wash tubs and clothes basket.
   (*b*) Fix permanent hooks for hanging tubs, etc.
   (*c*) Fix permanent hooks for indoor clothes line.
6. Make a chart for stain removal and post it.
7. Paint cellar walls and equipment a light color so that there will be more light in the cellar.
8. If space is available, partition off a section of the basement for a recreation center.
   (*a*) Make partition with curtains.
   (*b*) Paint and recover old furniture
   (*c*) Cover old pillows.
   (*d*) Take old rag rugs, and wash, dye, and mend them.

Goal: "Closets on parade."

Experiences:

1. Rearrange and renovate clothing closet.
   (*a*) Paper and paint the inside of the closet.
   (*b*) Arrange shelves conveniently.
   (*c*) Make a shoe bag or shoe rack.
   (*d*) Fix hat boxes and miscellaneous boxes.
   (*e*) Make hat stands.
   (*f*) Arrange a rod at a convenient height in the closet.
2. Make an improvised closet in bedroom.
   (*a*) Set up and decorate a screen in a corner.
      (1) Screen made of painted wallboard.
      (2) Wooden frame with cloth.
      (3) Heavy cardboard with wallboard.
   (*b*) Put any of the following on the back of the screen:
      (1) Laundry bag.
      (2) Shoe rack.
      (3) Hooks for dress hangers.
      (4) Homemade shoulder covers for dresses.
3. Arrange a utility closet.
   (*a*) Label hooks for dust mops, brooms, etc.
   (*b*) Put a supply of dust clothes in a wire basket.
   (*c*) Put a supply of clean rags in a box.
   (*d*) Fix shelves for floor waxes, furniture polish, etc.
4. Arrange miscellaneous storage spaces.
   (*a*) Fix a compartment for rubbers and galoshes.
   (*b*) Arrange a box of shoeshine equipment.
   (*c*) Arrange hooks or a stand for umbrellas.
5. Plan closet to care for linen supplies.
   (*a*) Attach strings to boards to keep linens flat when storing.
   (*b*) Place linen in drawers so linen is rotated.
   (*c*) Make napkin cases.
6. Prepare storage space for a small brother's (or sister's) clothing, helping him to develop the habit of putting things in their proper places.

Goal: Take charge of the care and cleaning of the house, getting co-operation of other members of the family in keeping things in their place.

Experiences:

1. Do the daily cleaning for three weeks.
2. Plan and supervise spring house cleaning.
3. Rid the house of pests.
4. Care for wood surfaces.
5. Care for the silverware and metals.
6. Sponge rugs and upholstery.
7. Care for stoves and other appliances in the home.

Goal: Make the home safer.

Experiences:

1. Paint bottom step white.
2. Keep all stairways cleared.
3. Place a hand rail by cellar stairway.
4. Make a separate cabinet for poisons. Label all poisons with a large skull and crossbones or some other distinguishing feature.
5. Make a metal container for dust cloths and oily rags.

Goal: Improve the landscaping of the home grounds.

Experiences:

1. Plan or prune shrubbery.
2. Keep the lawn mowed.
3. Plan and arrange flower borders so as to have flowers in bloom the whole season.
4. Make an attractive rock garden.
   (*a*) Make a pool by inserting a barrel in the ground.
   (*b*) Plant and care for suitable rock garden plants.
5. Fix porch boxes.

Goal: Provide first-aid supplies at home.

Experiences:

1. Plan and make a medicine cabinet and fill it with all the necessary first-aid materials.

2. Collect pamphlets and make a chart of first aid in case of emergency. Post a chart inside the door of the medicine closet.
3. Improvise equipment such as splints to be used in case of an emergency.

Goal: Budget the food allowance.

Experiences:

1. Determine the amount of income to be used on food and plan the amount to be spent on various types of food such as meat, milk, etc.
2. Plan the family meals and market orders, making the meals wholesome and keeping the bills within the amount allowed by the food budget.
3. Figure out how much it costs to feed each person in the family per day.

Goal: Keep the cellar shelves filled with home canned produce.

Experiences:

1. Plan, select, and can a definite number of quarts of any of several varieties of the following:
   (*a*) fruits
   (*b*) vegetables
   (*c*) meats
2. Plan for and preserve five kinds of relishes and pickles.
3. Plan and prepare each of the following:
   (*a*) fruit jelly
   (*b*) a jam
   (*c*) a preserve
   (*d*) a marmalade
   (*e*) a conserve
   (*f*) a butter

Goal: Care for your own or your family's clothing.

Experiences:

1. Make inventory of present wardrobe and make all needed repairs including:
   (*a*) Pressing

(*b*) Mending
(*c*) Stain removal

2. Take charge of the family laundering.

Goal: Become more skillful in clothing construction than is possible in the time allowed at school.

Experiences:

1. Make play clothes for youngsters.
   Plan and make self-help garments for young children, emphasizing suitable clothing for children as well as construction processes.
2. Take a complete inventory of your wardrobe, and make and carry out detailed plans for its revision and additions. Stress color, accessories, and suitability. In this project advanced students might make over a dress.

Goal: Improve your personality.

Experiences:

1. Practice speaking to everyone with whom you have the slightest acquaintance.
2. Plan and carry out ways of getting along better with the other family members.
3. List personality traits you dislike in other people and check yourself against them.
4. Broaden your personality by developing a hobby.

Goal: Help to create happier home living.

Experiences:

1. Help the family plan its summer vacation considering
   (*a*) The family budget
   (*b*) The likes and dislikes of members of family
   (*c*) The preparation — food, clothing, packing
2. Add to the pleasure of mealtime in your home by your own good humor, good manners, and interest in the other members of the family.
3. Entertain some of your mother's or father's friends at dinner. Act as cook and waitress.

Goal: Care for a young child.

Experiences:

1. Make educational toys out of inexpensive material for a child.
2. Observe and then direct the play activity of some neighborhood children for: indoor games and entertainment on rainy days; group games; or individual play. Select books for these children.
3. Take complete charge of a small baby either to help a working mother or to earn money in some other home.
4. Plan and give a party for young children.
5. Help a child to form desirable sleeping habits.
6. Plan and prepare suppers for a child for a period of two weeks, and try to improve eating habits of the child.

HOME EXPERIENCES AND INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

In addition to having in mind many different kinds of home experiences related to classroom goals and suitable for various students, it is highly desirable for the teacher to consider what may be reasonably expected of students of varying backgrounds and abilities even before the idea of home experiences is suggested to the group. All too often the homemaking teacher expects all students to choose and carry out the same type of home experiences on about the same level of attainment. Furthermore, while it is advisable to obtain considerable information about individual pupils, it is not always possible to do this. In many instances the teacher will have only a minimum amount of data and will have to use her judgment as to what experiences will fit the situation. The following examples indicate the information which the average teacher might possess in regard to the needs and ability of any one pupil. From the few facts on hand the teacher should have some idea what experiences should be encouraged, discouraged, or permitted if pupils particularly desire them.

Audrey James *IQ 79* *Ninth Grade* *First Year Homemaking*

Report of Home Visit

It was five o'clock before I left school; so I was able to make only a short call at Audrey's home. Her father and mother had just returned from a funeral. Mr. James is the Methodist minister in Breckenridge, a nearby country town. The parents are young-looking, the mother very quiet and gracious in manner. Audrey is interested in cooking, but is only beginning to cook at home. She says that her family is fond of gingerbread, but that when she tries to make it, the batter boils in the oven instead of baking. She wants to do some home practice to see if she can remedy her product. I helped her find another recipe and told her that perhaps the batter had been too thin. Audrey has three younger brothers, all of whom are attractive, bright-looking boys. The family was pleasant but gave every evidence of being in the financial position of a typical rural minister.

Other Available Data

Extracurricular activities: Senior chorus
Personal problem: "Don't have pretty clothes"
Family problem: "Money"
No previous home experience work

Diagnosis

1. She needs home practice first, possibly in cooking.
2. Due to the family's financial condition, the project should not involve the expenditure of much money.
3. Her low IQ precludes anything except the most simple kind of work. With supervision she might be able to renovate clothes or make accessories for a dress which would create the feeling of having pretty clothes.

Possible Home Experiences with Supervision

Help her mother with the cooking.

Arrange a closet to give more space for folded garments, for large and small articles, and for hanging clothes.

Learn how to care for and arrange hair.

Pack school lunches for herself and brothers.

Help her mother Sunday mornings so that she can get to church in plenty of time.

Renovate dresses for herself at minimum cost.

Ruth Fortney *IQ 92* *Tenth Grade* *Second Year Homemaking*

Report of Home Visit

Ruth's family live in an extremely large house which has deteriorated dreadfully — no paint on the outside, broken steps, gates sagged. Much furniture that might have been new fifteen years ago is in terrible shape now. The living room walls are covered with large, bright oil paintings of different styles of houses and lawns. Ruth said her brother, who is now a newspaper man in another state, painted the walls. The work shows talent but no training. During the school week Ruth lives with a family where she works for her room and board. She enjoys the attractive simplicity of this house even though she is required to do a lot of work. She does dishwashing, scrubbing, and bedmaking; cleans her own room; carries water; helps with the cooking; and takes care of two children, aged three and seven.

Other Available Data

Extracurricular activities: Music appreciation, Pep Club.

Personal problem: "I can't keep my mind on my work. I always feel so tired. If I only could know how much time the house work would take each day, it would be easier."

Family problem: "Money."

Previous home experiences: (1) Tried to overcome poor eating habits and bring weight to normal. (Ruth worked very hard on this and was fairly successful in learning to eat foods she had previously disliked. However, she did not gain as she had hoped.) (2) Selected and made a print dress for herself.

Diagnosis

1. She needs help in budgeting time and in planning details of her work in her foster home. She should not be encouraged to take on additional work.
2. She needs encouragement in eating the necessary foods to gain weight.
3. She needs training in the care of young children.
4. Ruth and her family take pride in the brother's paintings but dislike their dilapidated home. At present they are financially unable to do anything about it.

Possible Home Experiences

Plan detailed weekly and daily schedules to include all work done at her foster home.

Study her diet and see whether or not it needs changes.

Rearrange furniture and renovate drapes at home. (Summer only. Do not suggest making changes in wall decorations. Her family has an emotional attachment for the brother's paintings.)

Arrange suitable places for the children's toys and teach children to put their toys away.

Refinish furniture, fix steps, and landscape the yard at home. (Summer only)

Elaine Johnson *IQ 123* *Eleventh Grade* *Third Year Homemaking*

Report of Home Visit

Elaine comes from one of the better homes in the city. Her father has a good position with General Electric. Her mother is a former school teacher. Elaine has a younger sister, fifteen, and a nine-year-old brother. The girls are very popular and peppy at school. Mrs. Johnson dresses them nicely. Elaine does superior work. She is just sixteen and has been in love half a dozen times. She sews beautifully but does not like to have her mistakes pointed out. Mrs. Johnson was one of the regular attendants in my adult class and did some home projects which included improving the work space at home and attempting to solve a behavior problem of her young son.

Other Available Data

Extracurricular activities: Cabinet, Pep Club, Dramatics.
Personal problem: "I have trouble getting along with my sister."
Family problem: "We have only one living room, and we all want to entertain at the same time."
Previous home experiences: (1) Made and carried out own budget of personal expenses; (2) Planned and prepared suppers for the family. (Superior work in both projects)

Diagnosis

1. Possible jealousy between the older and younger sister.
2. Elaine has not learned to accept criticism and has difficulty in making adjustments in family life.
3. Elaine may need guidance in planning suitable leisure time activities for herself, her friends, and members of her family.

Possible Home Experiences

Redecorate and furnish at minimum cost a basement or attic room for recreational purposes.

Plan ways of improving personality weaknesses and becoming a better member of the family.

Plan a weekly schedule to suit all members of the family for the use of the living room.

Plan a picnic to include her sister and friends.

HELPING PUPILS RELATE HOME EXPERIENCES TO THEIR GOALS

As previously stated, learning becomes more efficient when pupils are permitted to share in planning the school program. Whenever pupils are encouraged to take the initiative in deciding how home experiences will contribute toward their goals, such experiences take on a new significance that would not otherwise have been possible. This procedure helps to stress the relationship between what is learned at school and the practical application that is to be made of this knowledge in terms of actual experiences. It makes pupils aware that home experiences can be definitely related to the classroom program and not just be extracurricular work. Take, for instance, a class in consumer buying. The class has been working on the goal "to learn to buy some of the things my family uses such as foods, small kitchen utensils, and home accessories." They have helped to plan and carry out the following *school experiences:*

1. File and check a list of articles purchased by individual class members for home use.
2. Set up an exhibit of cans and compare sizes and amounts held in each. Select one article of food such as pears in several different-sized containers and compare cost with amounts.

3. Find out how many brands, sizes, and types of a specific commodity, such as canned peas, are available in certain stores. Select five brands most commonly found and judge them as to quality.
4. Make a market order of eight or more items of food to be given over the telephone. Include such things as eggs, milk, canned fruits, canned vegetables, salmon, fresh meat, and bread. What information on each article should be given to the clerk?
5. Arrange a display of at least six articles of various qualities. Have the class and an experienced person rate these articles in order of quality. Compare results.
6. Set up a store. Dramatize sales each of which illustrate one or more of the following:
   (*a*) reliable information regarding labels, trademarks, and guarantees.
   (*b*) discrepancies between advertising and actual article.
   (*c*) possibilities and limitations of following as guides:
      (1) Price
      (2) Inspection
      (3) Experience
      (4) Scientific tests
7. Make exhibits of decorative objects that may be used in the home. Compare these as to beauty, quality, price, and suitability.

It is suggested that supplementary *home experiences* are needed if maximum attainment of the goal is to be reached. The following are experiences listed by the pupils as suggestive of what various individuals may choose to do at home:

1. Possibly the mother has complained that the meat bill for the family is too high. The pupil can arrange with the mother to buy all the meat for a certain length of time and plan the way it shall be cooked. The amount saved, if any, should be carefully computed.
2. Another mother says she is tired of placing orders so frequently at the grocery store. The pupil may be able to help

the mother, or to plan the menus in advance independently and make out a weekly market order for all except a few fresh foods.

3. Still another mother may be puzzled at all the brands of canned vegetables available at the store where she trades regularly. The pupil may work out a plan for judging these brands and then recommend the ones which should be purchased and the best uses for each one.
4. A pupil whose mother would like to reduce food costs may undertake to find out how much can be saved per month by substituting cooked cereal for prepared cereal for breakfast.
5. A pupil whose older sister wants a practical wedding present for a close friend may be given the responsibility of buying small kitchen utensils to be used as a gift.
6. A pupil whose mother believes the family fruit bill is too great may arrange with her mother to buy all the fruit for a certain length of time and plan how it is to be served. The amount spent by the pupil, as compared with the amount spent by the mother, should be calculated. The family's satisfaction regarding the fruit served should also be considered.

In other instances several pupils may choose similar home experiences and may gain a great deal by working together. Comparing progress and evaluating final achievement can be worked out as a group or individually.

HELPING PUPILS PLAN HOME EXPERIENCES IN DETAIL

The inexperience of most pupils makes it necessary for the teacher to guide and direct the planning of home experiences. Assuming that class discussions regarding experiences have previously taken place and that the teacher has already utilized whatever information she has about each pupil's personality, home background, and the needs of the family, the next step is to arrange for individual conferences first with the pupil and perhaps later on with the parents. At the conference the pupil should be encouraged to give the teacher a clear picture of what she wants to accomplish. It is only

when a pupil lacks ideas or is obviously choosing an experience which the teacher has every reason to believe cannot be successfully achieved that the teacher herself makes suggestions. The data which the teacher has about each pupil should, however, enable her to do skillful questioning and guiding.

Of course the extent of any home experience should depend upon a pupil's ability to handle the details involved. Activities should not be too simple but should be a definite step up in difficulty. As already stated, pupils should select experiences which not only are suitable for them but are related to class work representing different areas of homemaking. For example, *the first year* student may choose first home practice and then home experiences related to classroom goals. For *the second year* the home experiences may involve a combination of activities such as child care, including behavior problems; meals for a preschool child; selection of a child's clothing for different seasons of the year; and renovation of a child's room. *The third year* may involve greater managerial ability relating to home and community life and may include more difficult personality problems. Many third year pupils hold regular paying positions after school hours or during vacations such as waitress work, clerking, assisting a trained nurse, taking care of young children, or doing housework in a private home. Since these activities are directly related to homemaking, they may be carried on as home experiences. Under the guidance of the teacher who encourages the personal growth and development of each student in whatever task she may be doing, such experiences may be of great value to pupils after they leave school.

Taking everything into consideration the final choice of a home experience should depend in general upon the following factors:

1. Possible values to be gained.
2. Knowledge and experience of the pupil.
3. Attitude of family members.
4. Home equipment and facilities.
5. Amount of time and money available.

All plans for activities should be written out and copies made for the teacher and the pupil. Just as students need to have a picture

before them of the dress they are about to make or the menu they are to prepare, so they need a clear plan for a home experience. The plan should probably include a simple statement of what is to be accomplished and how it is to be carried out. Such a plan may be written by the teacher in conference with the pupil, by the pupil, or best of all in a joint interview of the teacher, pupil, and parent.

Supervision of Home Experiences

Assuming that individual discussions have taken place to determine what experiences shall be undertaken and how they shall be carried out, the next step for the teacher is to arrange for careful supervision of these experiences. There are numerous ways in which this may be done, but only the three which appear essential if maximum results are to be obtained, are discussed.

CONFERENCES

As the experience progresses, individual conferences or group conferences where a small number of pupils are working on the same type of activity, may be held at the school, at the home of one of the pupils, or at a convenient location in the community. Conferences should be scheduled in advance and posted on the bulletin board so that pupils may have ample opportunity to prepare questions that may have arisen and to outline a report of their progress. All meetings should be informal. The number of individual conferences will depend upon the ability of the pupil to work independently and the difficulty of the experience itself.

HOME VISITS

The teacher will need to make pupils realize that she can be of great help to them by visiting their homes and becoming acquainted with their parents and other members of the family. Early in the year general plans for visiting the homes should be discussed in class. Since many parents follow a weekly schedule such as washing on Monday, ironing on Tuesday, or baking on Saturday, certain days are apt to be more convenient than others for parents to receive a teacher's visit. Pupils should be encouraged to discuss with their

parents and then report to the teacher the most convenient time for her to call. To facilitate matters, the teacher may post a map on the bulletin board for pupils to indicate the location of their homes. If a city or county map is not available, one or two pupils may be willing to make a map as a contribution to the class program.

Before visiting a home the teacher should read any records which give information about the home and the family or talk with the administration, who may have had long-standing contacts with many of the pupils. Whenever possible the teacher should make a special effort to talk with parents at P.T.A. meetings, church socials, or at clubs and to become acquainted with them before she makes a home visit.

The First Visit

Since first impressions are extremely important, special suggestions are offered:

1. Dress simply; be well groomed.
2. Before entering the home have in mind a topic of conversation which will interest the family members.
3. The opening remarks should show friendliness and sincere interest in the family group.
4. Be alert to problems that might be discussed which would strengthen the relationship between the home and the school.
5. Tactfully lead the conversation to a discussion of the homemaking experience of the pupil, note the family reactions, and decide whether or not adequate progress is being made. Written notes, however, should generally not be taken while at the home.
6. Do not bring problems of maladjustment into the home at this time. That is not the purpose of the visit.
7. Observe unobtrusively characteristics of the home and the family members which will help you to give better guidance to the pupil.
8. Never indicate disapproval or dislike of certain home practices or conditions.

9. Extend an invitation to the family to attend any planned functions at the school and to use the facilities of the homemaking department.
10. Leave with a friendly anticipation of a later visit.

Succeeding visits to a home should be planned whenever there is a definite need for guidance in carrying out or in evaluating a home experience.

Using the Information Acquired

As soon as possible after a visit has been made, the teacher should summarize the characteristics of the home which will influence the type of future experiences the pupil may take. This should include a list of the special needs of each pupil and plans for meeting these needs. General remarks which will be helpful to other teachers should also be recorded. A card file for the teacher's personal use should be kept for this purpose but should, of course, not be available to the pupils.

Ethics About Home Visits

Parents must be made to feel that any information which they may give the teacher will be considered confidential. This means that a teacher should not discuss the home or family life of a pupil with anyone in the community. It also implies that only objective information which will increase comprehension of a pupil should be passed on to another teacher, and it should be understood that such information is confidential. Records which involve a personal evaluation of pupils and their home environment should be kept under lock and key and should be destroyed when the teacher leaves the community.

EVALUATING PROGRESS

Probably the most important aspect of supervision is an evaluation at various intervals of the progress being made. Assuming that all evaluation will be in terms of what each student has planned to accomplish, the teacher and the class will then need to decide what types of evaluation are most desirable. Whatever type is

used should list the adjustments and changes made in the original plan, the difficulties which the pupil has encountered in carrying out the project, the reactions of the family or community to the experience, the comments of classmates, illustrations, snapshots, samples of materials used, or anything else that offers evidence concerning the extent to which pupils have accomplished the specific goals set up for the experience.

Oral Reports, Exhibits, and Demonstrations

Pupils may report orally to the teacher or to the class as a whole. Sometimes it is an excellent plan to have special homemaking progress days at intervals of about six to eight weeks when students may present reports, exhibits, or demonstrations. Parents, school administrators, and others interested in the work may be asked to attend these special sessions. Many schools have homemaking advisory committees composed of people in the community who confer with the teacher about homemaking matters. Such a committee furnishes continuity to a program especially when there is a frequent change of teachers, and the group would naturally be given an invitation to attend progress days.

Written Reports

Some students who enjoy creative writing will favor this type of evaluating progress. Written reports are especially appropriate when the experience is integrated with the work of an English or social science class.

Combination of Oral and Written Reports

Still other pupils may prefer to combine oral reports with written accounts of the experience. It is always well to encourage several procedures so that various techniques may be practiced. An example of a combined oral and written report may be suitable when a pupil, the mother, and the teacher jointly prepare the summary of values gained.

PERMANENT RECORDS

Supervision ordinarily includes the keeping of home experience records. Such records may be kept by either the teacher or the

pupil, should be simple and objective, and should list past and present experiences and pertinent information which will serve as an aid in planning future experiences. Records should be available to the teacher and pupils at all times.

Special Difficulties

Although home experiences have long been considered vitally important in homemaking courses, the fact remains that teachers have sometimes encountered difficulty in organizing such a program. Some of the problems that teachers encounter and possible solutions for them are given below in order that young teachers may benefit from the experience of other members of the teaching profession.

REQUIRING HOME EXPERIENCES

"*Some girls do not seem interested in home experiences. Should everyone be required to do projects?*"

Research on the subject indicates that home experiences were slightly more effective on the voluntary plan than when required, as evidenced by the number and variety of projects completed, number of home visits made by teachers, and student interest according to mothers' opinions.[1] In this research it was interesting to note that 83 per cent in the voluntary group in contrast to 53 per cent in the required group stated that they did their projects because they were interested in improving some situation at home. But whether home projects were required or voluntary, there was a tendency for students to do home projects in which the results were obvious. This indicates that as far as the pupils are concerned, most home projects are considered a natural counterpart of the regular class work.

LIMITING CHOICE OF EXPERIENCES

"*The pupils did not want to limit their choice of experiences to related*

[1] Bertha Akin, *A Study of Required and Voluntary Home Projects in Nevada Vocational High School Homemaking Classes to Determine Methods for Best Results* (master's thesis, University of Minnesota, 1940).

class work. In a class in foods several girls wanted a project in yard beautification."

The procedure of relating home experiences to class work seems essential in most cases since it is believed that students will be assured of greater successes when problems are based on the knowledge and skills gained in the homemaking course. Sometimes the fault lies with the teacher for not having enough interesting experiences along lines of class work. Perhaps the scope of the course needs to be broadened to meet the needs of the pupils. Although there may be times when it would be advisable to encourage a pupil to take an unrelated project, this should be the exception rather than the general rule.

FINDING TIME FOR HOME EXPERIENCES

"*My greatest problem was to lead the girls to see that they have time to do home experiences.*"

Pupils sometimes insist that there are so many outside things to do that little time or energy remains for home experiences. Problems for these pupils should probably be planned to help them do better the things which they are already doing. For example, if a pupil takes care of small children after school hours, her project might involve arranging a suitable place for children's toys and teaching children to put their toys away; making play equipment from wooden boxes and scraps of lumber; or keeping a small child who is recovering from chicken pox occupied and happy.

"*This is a consolidated school. The girls come by bus and do not get home until after four o'clock. They have difficulty finding experiences which can be carried out at home after school hours.*"

This sort of problem calls for home visits by the teacher in order that she may offer suggestions for problems based on individual home situations. In case home visits are not possible, the teacher might arrange a group meeting of mothers on the same day that their husbands attend a class given by the teacher of agriculture. In this way a general discussion of experiences suitable for pupils who do not get home until late in the afternoon may be valuable and may result in giving the teacher the information she needs without making a personal visit to each home.

CHANGING HOME EXPERIENCES

"Girls select experiences and then want to change."

In most cases this difficulty implies that pupils did not choose wisely the goals toward which they are supposedly working. Occasionally it is desirable to change a problem even after it has been started, but this in general is not a wise practice. It may be sufficient for the teacher to have an individual conference with the pupil to attempt to create further interest in the experience by clarifying the goals and perhaps adding an additional feature to the project itself.

PLANNING HOME EXPERIENCES

"I had to teach the pupils how to plan a home experience."

It is probably asking too much to expect all pupils, especially the younger girls, just beginning homemaking, to plan an experience without some assistance. Teaching how to plan is one of the most important things a teacher can do and should be regarded as being as valuable as anything else that is taught.

RECORDING HOME EXPERIENCES

"It is difficult to get the class to keep an accurate record. Many of the important things I knew had actually been done were omitted."

There may be various reasons for this difficulty. Perhaps the records were cumbersome and involved too much time. Perhaps the pupils did not know just what was expected of them. All too often teachers have required lengthy reports which may have appeared to include irrelevant data. Many pupils have not yet learned to discriminate between what is essential and what can be left out of a record. Ability to make an adequate report comes with practice and should be considered a part of the learning process. If the form of the record is planned co-operatively by the teacher and the pupils so that the pupils see a reason for each item included, there will probably be much less difficulty in keeping accurate records. In many instances it may be better for the teachers and the pupils together to write the record. The parents' help, too, is desirable when possible.

GIVING CLASS TIME TO HOME EXPERIENCES

"The supervision of home experiences took more time than I had expected. The pupils are behind in their regular work and will have to do double work during the last month of school."

The question may well be asked, "After all, what is regular work?" If each member of the class has home experiences, what can be more worth while than this type of activity, especially if it is directly related to the work of the course? A teacher need not be unnecessarily concerned if the experiences take part of the regular class period; they should. With a little ingenuity the teacher should be able to shift the course material to fit the needs of the various activities without actually omitting any essential factors.

GRADING HOME EXPERIENCES

"I found it difficult to know just how to grade home experiences because I really don't know the homes of my girls well enough to evaluate the amount of improvement."

Unless school requirements prevent, it is best to let the class help decide whether or not home experience work should count toward the grade and if so, how much. For further details on this matter see pages 106–108.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. A ninth grade group has been working on the goal "to know what parents expect girls to do who receive pay for taking care of their children." Suggest possible school and home experiences for the group. Select several other tentative goals and suggest school and home experiences related to each goal.
2. For each of the following case studies indicate with reasons what home experiences should be encouraged, discouraged, or permitted if pupils particularly desire them.

(*a*) *Jessie Murray* *IQ 83* *Tenth Grade* *Second Year Homemaking*

Report of Home Visit

Jessie lives in a very comfortable, modern home with an older brother and her parents, but she says that she feels as if she were in a grown-up world, for there are no other young people in the immediate neighborhood. The father

has a good position with the railroad as a ticket agent. The mother has the house filled with articles which she believes to be antiques. Most of these things are not old or of any value, although there is one beautiful curly maple chest of drawers. Jessie is very conscientious but works slowly. She does not make good grades but does neat, carefully planned sewing. The material for a wool dress cost $1.69 per yard. Her mother says she doesn't think it pays to make a dress costing that amount when clothes can be bought so cheaply. She is pleased, however, that Jessie is learning to sew, since she herself has never learned.

Other Available Data

Extracurricular activities: Band, Behavior Club
Personal problem: "Getting along with Dad about grades."
Family problem: "My mother and father quarrel and can't get along."
Previous home experiences: (1) Planned and prepared vegetables in a variety of ways for her family; (2) Planned and made a simple print dress for herself. (Average work on both.)

(*b*) *Josephine Harris* *IQ 100* *Tenth Grade* *Second Year Homemaking*

Report of Home Visit

Josephine's home is nicely painted on the outside, but the surroundings are drab and bare, and what a shack inside! The wallpaper is faded and torn in shreds up to three or four feet. The house has a sink and running water, a new outside toilet, and a cellar. Mrs. Harris has been sick for six months in the past year, leaving most of the work for Josephine along with the care of six children. The children do not share the work as they should, but have learned to shift for themselves. When I arrived at four o'clock, Josephine was washing dishes left during the day. Although only fifteen, she seems much older. The mother says she talks to Josephine as if she were an older person and tells her about the family troubles. She is much discouraged at present. The source of income is very small and comes from a pension and what the father can raise on a small plot of land which he farms. They do not have a cow or chickens. Mr. Harris paints pictures when he is not busy with gardening and seems to have some talent. He went as far as the sixth grade in school. The mother's education is about the same. Josephine appears to have some artistic ability.

Other Available Data

Extracurricular activities: Music appreciation, junior dramatics
Personal problem: "I have trouble with my fingernails. They break off so much that I can't keep them in good shape. I don't have enough spending money either."
Family problem: "My mother is in ill health, and we haven't enough money to take her to a good doctor."

Previous home experiences: (1) Made a study of brands, labels, and contents of canned goods used at home; (2) Made a study of the cost and preparation of different cuts of meat. (This project was planned previous to a home visit by the teacher.)

(*c*) *Annette Martinella* *IQ 110* *Ninth Grade* *First Year Homemaking*

Report of Home Visit

Annette's parents came from Italy. Her twenty-four-year-old brother, who is unmarried and lives at home, was also born in Italy. He owns a chicken farm with about 3000 laying hens and sells the eggs at the state tuberculosis farm. He is pleased that Annette is taking homemaking, for he says that although she can sew nicely, she has never tried to cook because their mother could only teach her Italian cookery. Annette did not want to learn that because she thought it would make her even more different from the other girls than she already was. Annette's home is very untidy and needs refurnishing. The mother is fat, dirty, and happy-go-lucky. When I arrived Annette was scrubbing the kitchen floor with a broom and singing. The water was thick with mud. Annette is quite bright, with sparkling eyes, straight black hair, and an ivory complexion. She seemed to be ashamed of conditions at home, but at the same time was in bubbling spirits. Annette's father is a miner at the nearby town of Brookfield. Besides older brothers and sisters, she has two sisters, six and ten years, and a brother three years old, all of whom seem very fond of her.

Other Available Data

Extracurricular activities: Junior Literary, Behavior Club

Personal problem: "My brother thinks I should not go out on school nights and should not be out later than nine o'clock any night. I am never allowed out alone."

Family problem: "Father drinks quite a lot. He says he is quitting, but his friends at the mine keep coaxing him to take a drink with them. He is all right except during the time he is with these friends."

No previous home experiences

3. Choose a community known to the group and list as many means of teacher-parent contact as would be possible if home visits had to be curtailed.
4. Make a list agreed upon by the class of pertinent information for permanent home experience records.
5. Can you suggest any problems that may arise in guiding a home experience program other than those already given in this chapter?

13

Livable Homemaking Rooms

Learn that it is not abundance that makes riches, but economy and its application of what you have . . .

DANDEMIS

THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT in which pupils spend the greater part of their day and the equipment and supplies for facilitating the learning process all exert as vital an influence on pupil development as does the home or community environment. Although it is often difficult for a teacher to modify the surroundings in which pupils live, it is generally possible for her to arrange the learning environment so that conditions which lead to optimum development may be present.

UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES

There is no standard pattern for homemaking departments to follow in the arrangement and use of space and equipment, but nevertheless certain underlying principles apply to all departments regardless of size or extent of equipment.

In the first place, every department should create something of the atmosphere of a real home. Simplicity, convenience, comfort, and attractiveness should be the keynote. The application of sound principles of home management is as important in planning for the teaching of homemaking in the school as it is in the home. The shortness of the homemaking periods, the variety of activities, the different individuals and groups using the homemaking department — all serve to emphasize the need for careful planning.

In the second place, space and equipment should be based on the goals that the teacher and pupils have chosen and the experiences in which pupils are to participate in achieving these goals. If such a program is well rounded to include various experiences in care of children, home nursing, feeding and clothing the family, managing the budget, building up more adequate social relationships, and other phases of homemaking, the department will need to plan for equipment to fit all these activities. However, even though a department sponsors a variety of experiences, this does not necessarily mean an additional outlay of money. Much of the same equipment and space may be used for different activities. Some equipment may be borrowed, and other equipment may actually be used in various places outside the department such as factories, stores, hospitals, homes, and other places in the community to which pupils may make field trips. In fact the wider the outside contacts, the more effective the classroom teaching becomes. The school environment and its facilities are only one influence in pupil growth and development. Community and home surroundings are equally important. When the learning environment can be directly related to the home and community environment in terms of experiences and activities, then homemaking education begins to fulfill its obligations toward creating better home and family living.

In the third place, homemaking equipment should be based on the general economic status of the community in which it is to function. If the homemaking department is to have a definite influence on the homes and the family life of the community, then a knowledge of them is essential in planning the department. At the same time, the future betterment of homes in general must always be kept in mind, since the school may act as a medium through which a community is influenced toward better living conditions.

Homemaking Teacher's Responsibilities

When space and equipment are being considered, the homemaking teacher's responsibilities may be twofold: (1) caring for and making some improvements in the department under existing conditions; and (2) planning and furnishing a new department. The former

responsibility is an obligation of all homemaking teachers. In fact, research has shown that superior teachers invariably make some improvement in the department each year.[1] Young and inexperienced teachers are generally not called upon to plan and furnish a new department alone, but they may help to do so.

USE OF EXISTING SPACE AND EQUIPMENT

The responsibility of making improvements under existing conditions rests primarily upon the teacher, although she should encourage maximum participation from her pupils. Improvements may involve physical care of the room, arrangement of furnishings and equipment, and making the rooms attractive and homelike.

Caring for the Rooms and Equipment

Standards of homemaking efficiency call for a clean, well-kept department *at all times*. Even though the homemaking rooms should be given the same janitor service as the other classrooms in the building, it is still necessary for pupils to contribute a share in the upkeep of the department. A plan worked out co-operatively with the pupils for sharing the housekeeping of the department means that no one pupil has to spend too much extra time on the work. The plan should include provision for good methods of housekeeping and housekeeping duties, and a way of evaluating what has been done or left undone.

Parents who have visited a school and have seen an untidy department with soiled tea-towels hanging around, shelves in disorder, and the floor unswept have been very critical and rightly so. They do not expect a janitor to "tidy up" the department; there is no janitor at home. They want their children to learn habits of neatness and cleanliness at school that can also be applied at home. The teacher, therefore, should make a point of building up pride in the appearance of the department. Once this attitude has been established, a well-kept department should be the natural result.

The same thing applies to equipment and supplies. The life of

[1] Hazel M. Hatcher, *Characteristic Differences Among Homemaking Teachers of Varying Proficiency* (Bulletin 288; Lansing, Michigan: State Board of Control for Vocational Education, 1944).

any sort of equipment depends upon its care, and the responsibility for such care rests on the teacher and the pupils. Laxity of supervision and tolerance of improper usage of equipment and materials should be regarded as evidence of teaching inefficiency. The entire class, however, will need to co-operate with the teacher. This cannot be done through admonition on her part but by developing a spirit of personal pride among the students and an understanding by them that the care and protection of classroom property is a necessary part of all pupil growth.

Arrangement of Rooms and Equipment

It is generally easier to keep a department in order when the equipment and materials are arranged to afford the greatest convenience to all persons using them. Of course it may not always be possible to move some of the equipment such as stoves or sinks even though they are inconveniently placed, but desks, chairs, tables, cabinets, and other articles can sometimes be rearranged from time to time as the occasion warrants. This is important, since unit techniques have been found to contribute to efficient learning. For example, in studying meal preparation and serving, a unit kitchen with a setup as nearly like a home kitchen as possible is desirable. Likewise in home nursing a unit bedroom may be advisable. Improvements may also involve rearranging the department to permit the carrying out of more experiences. The latter procedure is especially important in schools where homemaking departments were instituted before the program was expanded to its present scope. These schools are often cramped for space and present a problem which must be solved if the many activities now carried on by most homemaking departments are to function successfully.

The teacher should not assume all the responsibility for the arrangement of a room but should encourage groups of pupils to develop better arrangements for the areas in which they are working. If community groups use the room in afterschool hours, they should be invited in to plan the arrangement. The point to keep in mind is that the arrangement of the department should be flexible in order to meet the needs of every class.

Attractiveness of Rooms

An attractive room is an incentive to keep the place clean and orderly. There was a time when scant attention was paid to classroom surroundings, but in recent years homemaking teachers have recognized the importance of developing the personality of the classroom as well as that of its pupils. A room that has been lifeless, unattractive, and uninteresting may spring to life by the addition of a vase of just the right color, or by the use of slip covers to hide worn-out furniture, or by relacquering a picture frame, or by arranging a group of colorful books and magazines. If homemaking education is to create the right influence, the room must be attractive so that homemakers as well as pupils will get ideas which they can use in their own homes. Pupils should be encouraged to use the homemaking room as a place to try out ideas for home decorations. Both pupils and their parents need to realize that home furnishings can be pleasing to the eye as well as useful and that an attractive room can often be planned around simple pieces of furniture and hangings that have been refinished or that have been made by the homemakers themselves with more ingenuity than expense. The art department may be appealed to for help in building a file of suggestions for inexpensive ideas which bring cheer and uplift to various kinds of rooms. In schools where long-time planning is encouraged, pupils may develop an outline for room improvement which will include color schemes for walls and furniture, the addition of a few new articles each year, and the refinishing and repair of pieces of furniture that may need to be freshened up.

Homelikeness of Rooms

In addition to being clean, convenient, and attractive, a department should be homelike. The teacher and pupils together may plan "home touches" such as lighting, wall and corner arrangements, casual arrangements for plants and magazines, and comfortable lounging space. The aim should be to make the homemaking department a pleasant place in which to work, to study, to confer, to lounge, and to play — in fact the next best place to home.

PLANNING NEW SPACE AND EQUIPMENT

The responsibility of planning and furnishing a department falls upon several agencies, all of whom must work together if effective results are to be obtained. The school administration, the state supervisor, the head of the homemaking department, the teachers in the department, the pupils, the homemakers, the architects, contractors, even the salesmen — all contribute through their special types of services toward the net results. Carefully prepared data are necessary, such as information regarding current trends in other communities, available resources, instructional space needed for present and future programs, laboratory equipment, hygienic lighting and ventilating facilities, cost of upkeep, and so forth.

Housing the Department

Frequently the amount of space given to a homemaking department is based on the number of pupils enrolled in homemaking classes in proportion to the entire school enrollment. This is often a false basis on which to plan a department because other important factors, such as the extent and continuity of use of the space and equipment and the techniques employed by the teacher, should be considered. Unit kitchens, for example, may require more floor space than the usual foods laboratory, but the results in terms of learning tend to justify the extra space. Furthermore, unit arrangements may actually call for a smaller initial expenditure of funds for equipment than the ordinary laboratory setup. If the unit technique is carried over into a unit living room adjoining the kitchen, various activities in both units may be carried on under the supervision of one teacher with all the floor space utilized at the same time. The idea, of course, is to make the school environment as nearly like the home situation as possible with the amount of resources available.

When it comes to the location of the department in the school building, most homemaking teachers have definite ideas of what is desirable and convenient. As a rule the majority of teachers prefer any location to that of the basement, which although often inadequately lighted and subject to the dirt and dust from the street, seems to be a favorite place for school lunchrooms and their attend-

ing kitchens. A lunchroom, however, is in use only a small part of the total school day while homemaking rooms are being constantly used all day and many evenings. For this reason it is considered advisable to have high standards of light, ventilation, and cleanliness. Some teachers prefer a wing on the first floor, not only because this location facilitates the receiving of supplies and the disposal of waste but also because it is more convenient for community use. Another point in its favor is that plumbing, electric, or gas outlets usually are cheaper to construct on the first floor than on others. But wherever located, except in a cottage, all the homemaking rooms should be on one floor and adjoining if possible.

Several suggestions for housing are discussed below briefly so that teachers may have a general idea of just how the space allotted to any one homemaking department is sometimes utilized.[2]

Combination homemaking room. Many schools provide only one homemaking teacher and a single room equipped for teaching all phases of the homemaking course. Although most of these one-room departments are the result of forced economy in school space and do not represent the true value of homemaking education as far as the administration is concerned, they may meet the needs of a broad homemaking program very adequately. The available space may be furnished as two rooms, one to serve as a kitchen and the other as a living room with comfortable chairs, reading lamps, a drop-leaf table, and a chest of drawers, all of which should be easy to move around and suitable for various purposes. This arrangement allows several activities to go on at the same time. Meal preparation may be carried on in the kitchen space while experiences in child care, home nursing, or home management are going on in the living room section. A screen may be placed between the two sections. When meals are to be served, the drop-leaf table may be set up and some of the other furniture moved out of the way. The chest of drawers may contain the linen, silver, and possibly some of the china. When sewing classes are held, sewing machines and ironing equipment may be

[2] For a complete discussion see "Space and Equipment for Homemaking Instruction" (Vocational Education Bulletin, No. 181, Home Economic Series No. 18, Office of Education; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1936).

placed in advantageous positions in the living room and the other furniture rearranged for convenience. Most machines can later be disguised as tables or stored with the ironing equipment in closets and cabinets. Closets and storage space are, of course, important in a one-room department. They should contain sufficient space to take care of the equipment that cannot be used as furniture.

Home-type rooms. In many schools where space is available, several rooms patterned after actual home conditions may be set up for homemaking activities. Such an arrangement might include a living room, a dining room, a kitchen, and a bedroom or a combination of all four. The extent to which the home-type rooms prevail depends as a rule upon the financial resources available for the equipment and upkeep of the rooms and upon the breadth of the program. There is justification for an elaborate outlay only when the rooms are to be in constant use either by the pupils or members of the community.

Cottage-type rooms. Some departments have a separate cottage near the main school building in which homemaking classes are carried on in approximately the same kind of an environment as the home. In some instances the cottage has been a home which has been rented or purchased by the school and remodeled for homemaking education to supplement lack of classroom space in the main building. As a rule this type of cottage is not equipped with sufficient laboratory equipment to serve large classes, and it is, therefore, necessary for the teacher to study different procedures in the use of equipment with a view to securing optimum efficiency. However, in the cottage-type rooms, instruction tends to be more effective in teaching such phases of the program as home management, home nursing, child care, and entertaining techniques because less adaptation is necessary in applying them to home activities.

Sometimes a cottage is built by the school and is equipped with laboratory and storage facilities. In southern communities where winter heating is not a serious matter, the cottage plan has proved to be very practical and is well liked by the pupils. In the north such a plan involves certain factors that must be taken into consideration — the heating system, the inconvenience of going from

one building to another in cold weather, and adequate storage space for wraps.

Separate laboratories for foods and clothing. When homemaking education was thought of in terms of foods and clothing, it was customary in many schools to have at least one laboratory for each of these subjects. Except in communities where manipulative skills are stressed to the exclusion of a broad program, these laboratories do not lend themselves to the various activities now carried on in homemaking programs. In many schools, therefore, it has been necessary to add another room or two or to remodel the clothing laboratory so that it may be used as a combination clothing laboratory and living room where various aspects of home and family living may be taught.

Light, heat, and ventilation. In many communities the matter of light, heat, and ventilation is taken care of automatically by the school system. Every teacher, however, needs to be on the alert to see that these factors function satisfactorily at all times. Bodily comfort demands that seating arrangements be as comfortable as possible and that all pupils be able to hear the discussion and see illustrative materials and demonstrations. The modern tendency in window lighting is to avoid shades fastened on rollers at the tops of windows because when used to eliminate glare they shut out the best and most necessary light which comes from the upper panes. If roller shades are used at all, they should be fastened in the middle of the window and drawn down only to exclude glare. The best appliances are Venetian blinds or their equivalent made of strips which can be adjusted to deflect glare without eliminating light. The original cost of these blinds is greater than roller shades, but there is less need for supplementary artificial light. Sash curtains may be used to good advantage when the budget does not provide sufficient funds for more modern facilities. If artificial lighting is used, it should be indirect whenever possible. Too much light often works even more of a hardship on pupils than too little. Special care should be taken to make the lighting for evening classes as restful as possible. Adults who are apt to come to class somewhat fatigued become restless and uneasy when required to face too bright a light.

Heat and ventilation, of course, are other factors that require attention. Most modern mechanical systems provide for a constant flow of fresh air in the classroom, the operation of which is hindered when teachers attempt to regulate ventilation by opening windows and doors. Unsatisfactory ventilation should be reported to the engineer who is responsible for operating a mechanical system. In schools where gravity ventilation prevails, which is the movement of cold air coming in through windows and doors and heated air rising and passing out through vents, the responsibility for keeping the air fresh rests on the teacher, who will need to open the windows from both the top and the bottom when the room becomes overheated. The correct temperature of a room, however, depends somewhat on the type of work going on. If pupils are engaged in activities which keep them moving around, less heat is required than when they are sitting still. The teacher should also note the weight of the clothing which the majority of the pupils wear and should dress accordingly, so that a salutary temperature may be maintained for everyone throughout the day. The point to keep in mind is that adequate light, heat, and ventilation produce environmental conditions which lead to wholesome class behavior and efficient learning. For this reason these elements should be adjusted to the needs of the pupils rather than the preference of the teacher.

Screens for windows and doors should be considered indispensable for every homemaking department. Hygienic sanitation demands not only that flies and other flying insects be kept away from all food but that the annoyance and distraction which they create be eliminated.

Walls, woodwork, and floors. The walls, woodwork, and floors of a homemaking department should fit into the type of activity that is to be carried on. Laboratory rooms which require frequent scrubbing and cleaning need to be of a durable nature. The paint and varnish used on the walls and woodwork should be heavier than in the other rooms. Cream or buff colors which do not reflect too much light are to be preferred to pure white. Living room and bedroom walls may be papered with simple designs, but wall paper is expensive and not too easily cleaned. A good

grade of flat paint of a neutral color that will stand frequent washing is probably preferable. Sometimes natural wood rubbed with oil and varnished or waxed makes attractive doors, baseboards, moldings, and window frames.

Laboratory floors should be comfortable to stand on, quiet to walk on, and easy to clean. Stone or cement floors although easy to clean are cold and tiring to the feet and should be covered whenever possible. Hardwood floors heavily varnished and waxed to stand wear and tear are probably the most satisfactory for all rooms, but the food laboratories, laundry, and bath may be covered satisfactorily with a good quality of linoleum. Tile floors, although even more expensive than linoleum, are better for bathrooms and lavatories. Sometimes an initially expensive outlay of good floor covering which requires minimum care is more economical in the long run than a less expensive arrangement which demands constant upkeep.

Furnishings and Equipment

As previously stated, the equipment and furnishings of a department as well as the space devoted to it depend in part upon the breadth of view of the program. If the program is to include various phases of home and family living, then equipment that will approximate the home situation should be chosen. There should also be provision both for class discussion and study and for an adequately equipped teacher's work center. In the choice of all furnishings and equipment consideration needs to be given to such factors as standards of attractiveness, durability of furnishings, and heights of working surfaces.

Equipment and furnishings for various experiences. The goals cooperatively set up by the teacher and pupils and the kind of experiences essential to their achievement are factors in deciding upon the general arrangement in the homemaking department and in the selection and arrangement of specific pieces of furnishings and equipment. Among the problems to be considered in homemaking classes are these:

> Personal problems which include making a good impression, getting along with other people, and developing one's own personality.

Entertaining one's friends and family.

The use of money.

Getting a job and keeping it.

Making the home an attractive, comfortable, and pleasant place to live in.

Keeping well.

Learning how to sew and how to get more satisfactory clothes or how to get them for less money.

Social and community problems.

Obviously in deciding upon equipment and facilities for the experiences desired for the problems just listed, the teacher should consider which of these experiences may be carried on in other departments in the school, in the pupils' homes, or in the community better than they can be carried on in the homemaking department itself. However, even though many experiences may be carried on elsewhere, the more nearly the homemaking department approximates a real home — having in addition some laboratory space for classwork — the better able it is to provide opportunities for a study of home problems.

Equipment which serves more than one purpose and which can be moved readily should receive special consideration, particularly by a department limited in space. For instance, a combination chest of drawers and writing desk may be used at different times in a dining room, in a living room, in a bedroom, or in the teacher's work center.

If the teacher bases her program upon the economic status of her pupils, she will want equipment that will fit the needs of the average home in her community. For example, pupils who live in rural communities where electricity is not available may become dissatisfied with home conditions if they are taught to use only electrical appliances in school. In communities where the economic level is high, electrical equipment and up-to-date furniture will perhaps be necessary to attract pupil enrollment. In some communities where both high and low levels prevail, the teacher will need to establish a middle course of action which will meet the needs of all groups and yet be interesting and stimulating at the same time.

Pupil participation in the selection of furnishings and equipment is desirable for at least two reasons. Pupils who help in the selection have a feeling of part ownership and a pride of possession that can be secured in no other way. Furthermore, the selecting process is a type of learning experience for which superior teachers are constantly on the lookout. Its value cannot be overestimated.

Other factors which enter into the choice of equipment and furnishings are the kind of space available, the size of the classes, and the financial resources of the department. A cottage may well call for different treatment than would several rooms in the main high-school building. The arrangement and even the selection of equipment may need to vary for small and for large classes. Obviously more ingenuity is required when the department must be furnished on a relatively small budget than when there is one sufficient for all needs.

Class discussion and study. An arrangement for study and discussion periods which is comfortable and is large enough to seat all the pupils at one time is desirable in the homemaking department and may have to be particularly planned for in the cottage setup. If possible, space for class discussion should be located so that it may be reached conveniently without passing through work centers. Good lighting, unobstructed views of the blackboard and bulletin board, easy access to reference materials, and adequate and comfortable room for writing should be provided. All equipment should be selected from the standpoint of maintaining the harmony and home atmosphere of the room.

Teacher's work center. A carefully planned center for a teacher's materials, records, and personally owned accessories will not only make an additional, attractive unit but also furnish a business center for the department. Some degree of privacy for working and for having conferences with pupils is essential to good management. Each teacher employed in a department should have her own work center.

Standards of attractiveness and durability. Equipment and furnishings for a homemaking department should be purchased with an eye to their durability and attractiveness as well as to their usefulness. Constant usage, especially in the hands of inexperienced

pupils, takes its toll and necessitates equipment and furnishings which are strong and durable in material, construction, and finish. Although these factors must receive primary attention, it is also important to evaluate each piece of equipment in terms of simplicity, artistic design, and permanent attractiveness. Sometimes it is more satisfactory to buy one piece of equipment at a time rather than to purchase all of it at once. In this way each piece may be carefully evaluated for the purpose it is to serve.

Heights and finishes of working surfaces. Even when newly equipping a homemaking laboratory the teacher cannot provide the correct height of working surfaces for each individual because of the wide variation in the height of students. However, it is possible to base the height upon the average for the group using the equipment and then later to work out devices for raising or lowering the working surfaces for pupils who are unusually tall or short. There should be constant emphasis on the value of using correct heights in school in order to obtain carry-over into the homes. The best results will no doubt be obtained when pupils are guided to choose this as one of the class goals.

The height of the worktable should be such that the worker is enabled to stand with back straight, shoulders erect, and with arm and hand flexed at an angle that will give the most comfortable leverage for the processes of the longest duration. The height of chairs or stools should be high enough to enable the worker's arms to lie in a position similar to that described for stand-up work.

All the various kinds of working surfaces used for desks, tables, and kitchen tops have certain advantages and disadvantages, and each requires a special kind of care. If students have a part in making a study of the relative merits of different materials used for working surfaces and of then recommending what is to be used in their own laboratories at school, they will probably be much better informed and more interested in working for improvements in their own homes.

Storage Facilities

Adequate storage space in a homemaking department is as essential as adequate storage space in a home. Storage needs should be

carefully analyzed and space planned in relation to these needs. In general, storage is needed for equipment and for supplies used for special experiences within certain centers as, for example, those for meal preparation and service. Storage is also needed for additional materials used throughout the homemaking department and may be provided by a separate storeroom, by built-in cabinets in the homemaking rooms, or by a combination of both. The storeroom itself should be so planned that it is easily cleaned and kept in order, is convenient, and exemplifies good home storage in so far as it is practical for school use. If the co-operation of pupils can be gained in improving the storage facilities at school through some problem which they have helped to plan, it should be easier to interest them in improvement of storage space at home through such objectives as "to learn how to arrange a clothes closet so that it will be convenient" and "to learn how to rearrange kitchen equipment to save time and work." It may be desirable to ask for the co-operation of the shop department on projects involving improvement of home storage space.

Sharing the Homemaking Rooms

In afterschool hours homemaking rooms are often used by various groups of pupils for extracurricular activities such as club or council meetings, teas, special dinners, and other social events. It is generally believed, however, that the use of the rooms should be extended to the community as well as the pupils. The idea of having the homemaking department serve as a center for the social, cultural, and even the recreational needs of a community is not new. In fact, in plans for new schools, this possibility is often taken into account, and homemaking rooms are arranged on the first floor for easy access. Unit kitchens and unit living rooms often receive approval because they can be used not only by the pupils but also by adult groups in the evening. Sometimes, however, it may be necessary for the teacher to develop and promote some of the activities for which a homemaking department may be used (see Chapter 17, "Interpreting Homemaking Education to Others"); for unless members of a community are aware of the advantages of-

fered, they are not likely to avail themselves of the opportunities provided. Some communities have a special committee of townspeople who co-operate with the teachers and pupils in a publicity program. A visitor's day, special plays and assembly programs, parent teas, or athletic events may serve to attract members of a community to the school. In small communities where social organization is relatively simple and competing interests are fewer, community interests can be more easily integrated with those of the school than in larger cities. It is none the less important, however, that every community regardless of size be encouraged to look toward the homemaking department as a second home where groups of people can get together for social recreation, for friendly discussions on various aspects of home and community living, or for increasing knowledge and abilities. The more a homemaking department is used, the greater is the influence it is likely to exert in the community.

However, some teachers object to the wide use of the homemaking department because they fear that it will necessitate their spending longer hours at school and perhaps working many evenings or because they have had unfortunate experiences with groups who have left the department in poor condition after using it. On the whole such fears are needless, except in rare instances, and can be avoided if the teacher will encourage the selection of committees, one for the school and another for the community, whose responsibility it is to receive all requests, to grant or refuse permission for the use of the department *in accordance with the policies of the administration*, and to check to see that everything is left in good condition for class use. Probably the homemaking teacher should not serve on either committee but be an adviser to both groups.

The committee who would handle the requests for use of the department by school groups could, for example, be composed of the following members: (1) a pupil who is taking homemaking; (2) a pupil who has completed homemaking; (3) a pupil not in homemaking or a teacher who has been especially co-operative with the department.

The committee for community use might include three or four members representing different groups in the community such as the P.T.A., church organizations, and women's clubs.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What suggestions should prove helpful in securing the fullest co-operation of pupils in the care of the homemaking department?
2. Make an appraisal of a homemaking department with which you are familiar and indicate:
   (*a*) How the efficiency of the department can be improved by the addition of new equipment and the rearrangement of old equipment.
   (*b*) How the attractiveness and homelikeness of the department can be increased at little cost.
3. Consider the advantages and disadvantages of having pupils clean the department at the opening of the school year. What special care and storage of equipment and supplies is generally needed for summer vacation periods?
4. Describe pieces of furniture which may serve more than one purpose, and explain how each may be used in a homemaking department.
5. Make a study of the relative merits of different materials used for the working surfaces of tables and cabinets in a homemaking kitchen, and then recommend what would probably be most practical for a homemaking department with which you are familiar.
6. Make a collection of examples of interesting and adequate storage facilities. File these in such a way that pupils will be interested in adding to the collection.
7. What factors will probably be outstanding in determining the position of homemaking in a building program for the school?
8. Discuss how teaching techniques may need to vary in a cottage which does not provide laboratory space sufficient for the assembling of the entire group.
9. What suggestions can you offer for making others feel that the homemaking department really belongs in part to them?

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Teaching Aids

All that he touched, his uses turned to gold.

OLD PLAY

Textbooks and various illustrative materials to assist teachers in furthering the learning process have long been a tangible part of most teaching programs. In recent years other aids have been added to those already in use. The results of scientific research in many areas are now available in various forms. In fact the influx of printed matter relating to family and community living has made it possible for the homemaking teacher to obtain a great deal of educational material at very little expense. Magazines, bulletins, posters, exhibits, charts, graphs, and even motion pictures have all come to have an important place in many classrooms. In addition to these materials the community through its stores, its civic and religious organizations, and its homes also furnish many aids that contribute toward pupil growth. Some of these aids assist the teacher in making a more adequate preparation for her class work while others are used by the pupils in the attainment of educational goals. Sometimes the same facilities serve both purposes. Although both considerations are important, the major emphasis in this chapter is on the aids used by pupils in achieving classroom objectives.

Published Materials

The ease with which printing is done in this country has provided homemaking teachers with an endless supply of published

materials. Too much, however, may often be less helpful than too little. The real problem at the present time is to learn to evaluate what is on the market and to make careful selections on the basis of actual needs and available financial resources.

BOOKS

Whether a single prescribed textbook is used or whether a number of texts and references are employed, the important consideration is that the material be up to date. The question of what constitutes "up-to-dateness" depends largely upon the extent to which research is being done in a particular area. For example, at the present time a book on clothing construction even though published six years ago, may still be very useful. On the other hand, knowledge of nutrition is increasing so rapidly in the light of new research that nutritionists have a difficult time keeping up-to-date material on hand. When a book is no longer useful as a text or reference, it should be clipped for illustrations and worth-while material and then discarded.

A homemaking teacher as a rule should not limit the supply of books to a few areas but should include books which cover all phases of homemaking. Each year some new books should be added to the collection. Sometimes purchases may be financed by the School Board and allowed for in the budget. Sometimes each pupil in the class may pay a small rental fee which goes to buy books. This procedure is satisfactory if at the same time pupils develop the concept of book ownership for themselves.

In order to produce the greatest amount of effectiveness, most books should be adapted to the level of ability of the pupils using them. That is, college textbooks are not particularly helpful to the majority of high-school pupils, although there are many levels of reading ability even in a high-school group. An alert teacher keeps up with the books which her pupils would enjoy and has as wide a variety as possible. By reading book reviews she can often find interesting, correlated material which will contribute to the goals and experiences the class has set up. Every possible effort should be made to encourage the reading of books. One corner of the classroom may be set aside for reading purposes where pupils

may come at any time and enjoy reading for pleasure or for class work.

MAGAZINES

At the present time homemaking teachers have a wide choice of magazines that may serve as educational aids. First choice, of course, is the *Journal of Home Economics*, to which every homemaking teacher should subscribe as a part of her own professional equipment. Other homemaking periodicals which describe what is going on in high-school classes throughout the country are especially popular with pupils and make it possible for them to form a basis of comparison with their own activities. These periodicals also contain subject matter and ideas related to various phases of homemaking. Then there are magazines which specialize in a particular field of homemaking, such as foods, clothing, or science, and others that discuss general issues related to the entire area of family living, such as the so-called women's magazines.

After magazines are relatively old, say six months to a year, they should probably be clipped for useful material. Groups of students may be chosen to do the clipping and to see that other magazines are brought in by pupils for additional clipping purposes. The filing of all such material is very important and should be carefully planned for by the teacher and the pupils.

BULLETINS AND PAMPHLETS

Although there is a great deal of printed matter in the form of bulletins and pamphlets available at the present time, it is often difficult for teachers and pupils to know exactly where to obtain what they need. There are, however, three sources from which most material suitable for instructional aids comes. Government departments and agencies are constantly issuing up-to-date material on many phases of home and community living. All of these documents may be secured from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., and some may be obtained directly from the different branches of the government such as the Department of Agriculture, the Children's Bureau in the Department of Labor, the United States Office of Education, and others. Some of these bulletins and

pamphlets are free upon request, and others may be obtained for a nominal fee. Then there are various state sources which put out a great deal of printed matter for public use. Agricultural experimental stations connected with land grant colleges and universities and extension departments in many schools for higher education are constantly issuing pamphlets and bulletins based on the latest research in many areas pertaining to home and community living. Another rich source of teaching materials is the publications of professional and commercial groups, such as those connected with the medical and dental profession, consumer buying agencies, and dairy groups. Large retail stores in various sections of the country also issue valuable information on different aspects of home living and often send out advertising material which can be used for illustrative purposes in homemaking classes. All materials regardless of their source will need careful evaluation.

CHARTS, GRAPHS, AND POSTERS

In general these instructional aids may be obtained from the same sources as bulletins and pamphlets. Although such aids do not as a rule offer much descriptive information, they stimulate interest in a subject and often leave a more definite mental picture with a pupil than any amount of reading material can do under the same circumstances.

EXHIBITS, CARTOONS, AND PICTURES

Many exhibits come from commercial firms which advertise in magazines published primarily for teachers of homemaking education. These exhibits may often be obtained without charge, but requests should be made considerably in advance of the time the exhibit is to be used. Cartoons and pictures may be collected one by one and filed with various types of information on the same subject, or collections of small reproductions of well-known pictures may be made in book or portfolio form. These aids are useful in teaching art related to the home, home furnishing, and other courses. Museums often loan collections of pictures for exhibit purposes also. Magazine and newspaper pictures may be used effectively for bulletin board arrangements and for making posters.

MOTION PICTURES AND SLIDES

Educators are recognizing more and more the potentialities of slides and motion pictures for education when used as an integral part of classroom procedure. While textbooks and other printed materials tend to interpret data to the pupils, most motion pictures are adapted to the observation of data. They show pupils what something looks like, how it works, and what may happen to it. Recent films have gone a step further and have included subject material dealing with personal and social relationships and their importance to everyday living.

Research has shown that after pupils have seen a film they are stimulated to engage in some form of related activity.[1] The ten most frequently proposed activities and the percentage of pupils who suggested them are indicated below.

Types of Activity	Percentage of Pupils
See another film	59
Hold a discussion	44
Go on an excursion	25
Do experiments	17
Do further reading	14
Collect clippings	14
Engage in writing	10
Collect objects	10
Make individual reports	8
Make committee reports	7

In using motion pictures as instructional aids teachers need to make it clear to pupils that the school film has a different function from the theatrical film, which as a rule has a broad appeal and is produced for purposes of relaxation. The school film, which is more technical and is generally made for use within a comparatively narrow age range, needs to fit into the curriculum in terms of classroom goals and objectives if it is to have educational significance. It must be thought of as a means to an end, and not something shown

[1] Charles F. Hoban, Jr., *Focus on Learning* (Washington, D.C.: American Council of Education, 1942), p. 122.

for amusement. As a rule it is advisable not only to prepare pupils in advance for the showing of a film but also to point out relationships while the film is being shown.

Sources

There are many sources from which films and slides may be obtained. Films are either bought outright, rented, or lent. Various branches of the Federal Government, such as the Department of Agriculture and the Office of Education, produce films which may be purchased by schools at printing costs. In several states the Department of Public Instruction operates a film library, and over thirty state university extension divisions conduct libraries which serve schools outside as well as within the state. Many local or state museums also rent films and slides to schools. In fact there are so many sources that teachers will need practice in becoming familiar with them. At the present time there is no single catalogue of complete information available. However, probably the most satisfactory procedure is to consult the catalogue issued by the Federal Government which contains a comprehensive list of sources of motion pictures and slides.[2]

Choosing Films

Probably one of the easiest ways of finding out what one needs is to consult film catalogues, although it is often difficult for teachers to choose the right films since descriptions and educational evaluations are not always given. Many catalogues, however, give the producer's name, which will serve as a guide to teachers to know what to expect. The better producers of the truly instructional films not only are making a genuine attempt to adhere closely to accepted educational procedures, but also are collaborating with recognized authorities in many fields of research in order to ensure authenticity of the films and their adaptability to prevailing courses of study.

The mechanical details of ordering a film are important too. The teacher should give the exact title and the size and length of the

[2] *Sources of Visual Aids for Instructional Use in Schools* (Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 80, rev. ed.; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1941).

film wanted and should say whether she needs a sound or silent film. She should place the order early; even if she is getting the film from her own state, she should write at least two weeks in advance. She should also submit one or more dates and a substitute list of films in case her first choice is not available. She should follow all instructions carefully and return film promptly. Teachers should also know what their responsibilities are in case a film is lost or damaged. It is well to keep express receipts until the return of the film has been verified. In computing film costs, teachers should take transportation charges into consideration.

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES AS AIDS

In addition to the instructional aids just mentioned, there are other sources of supply which broaden pupils' experiences at very little expense.

Aids Made by Teacher and Pupils

Whenever possible pupils should be encouraged to provide materials which they consider important to the attainment of their goals. Many of these articles can be made by the pupils themselves. For example, diagnostic charts for clothing are comparatively easy for pupils to make, yet they are very valuable aids in evaluating work or discerning difficulties. A chart may represent a completed set of clothing construction skills to be used as a standard measure, or it may show progressive steps in making seams, plackets, bound buttonholes, and the like. Some pupils may wish to keep a mounted record chart of their own progress in clothing construction over a long period so that they may see what improvement they have made. Snapshots of made-over clothes showing the articles before and after making over, samples of fabrics suitable for clothing at different seasons of the year, and collections of up-to-date dress trimmings and accessories may be mounted on cardboard and used to demonstrate many of the principles learned from textbooks. These examples are only a few of the many possibilities for creative work throughout the whole area of homemaking.

Aids Lent or Borrowed by Teacher or Pupils

Various articles, such as household gadgets, costume accessories, pieces of china or pottery, and numerous other materials, may be borrowed for demonstration. Borrowing under these circumstances may have a fourfold effect. It may show the community that homemaking education is something more than the acquisition of manipulative skills; it should teach pupils to be careful of other people's property; it generally means that less storage space has to be provided at the school; and it leaves more money to be used for other things. Occasionally, however, various articles such as single pieces of china or pottery should be purchased as a permanent part of the classroom equipment (see page 325).

PEOPLE AS INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

One of the most effective sources of instructional aids comes from the behavior of people. Interest in human relationships in addition to the mechanics of living is now considered an important aspect of pupil growth. Understanding why people do certain things such as knowing the basis for a mother's insistence that her daughter be home at a certain hour, understanding a grandmother's place in the home, or realizing that community interests must sometimes come ahead of personal preferences give additional meaning to a pupil's environment. This search for meanings needs to be identified with the work of the classroom if adequate personality development is to be attained. Various goals in homemaking along with people in a community who can contribute to each goal are suggested below.

Type of Person	*Goal*
DOCTOR	To know something about communicable diseases.
NURSE	To learn how to care for someone who is ill at home.
DENTIST	To improve the appearance of the teeth.
FLORIST	To know how to plant and transplant.

A Parent who has given a child an allowance over a period of years	To know how to manage money.
Foreign-born Women	To learn how to prepare unusual meals.
Grandmother	To understand why people of different ages have different ideas as to what is right and wrong.
A Popular Senior Boy who has brothers and sisters	To be able to get along with one's brothers, sisters, and friends.

SCHOOL RESOURCES AS AIDS

Equipment, laboratory supplies of various kinds, and furnishings must all be considered as important aids to learning. In addition to stationary equipment other facilities may be put into effective use. For example, in the care and guidance of children the teacher may utilize the kindergarten and lower elementary children by working co-operatively with teachers in these grades. Exhibit cases in the halls can be used to show the rest of the school some of the things that the homemaking department does. In working on the objective "to learn how to landscape home grounds," the teacher and pupils can work with the agriculture department and make use of the school lawns. Hot lunches have much to offer for the achievement of several goals: (1) to know how to select meals in public places; (2) to learn how to break bad eating habits and how to form good ones; (3) to find possible jobs and to learn the preparation needed for them; (4) to prepare food in large quantities; (5) to know what one's family should eat to keep well. Pupils may also write articles on homemaking activities for the school paper. The art department may be asked to give talks on color schemes, rug and drapery designs, and other subjects related to home furnishing. A resourceful teacher can find unlimited aids in the school environment which in many instances are not being utilized.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES AS AIDS

The community has much to offer in the matter of furnishing aids to the school, but the point to keep in mind is that it should not be a one-way proposition. The school should contribute to the growth of the community and should consider the matter from a give-and-take angle. There are innumerable experiences leading to class goals which pupils can work out through utilizing community resources. A few are listed: (1) Set up displays of lunch box meals, of menus, and of market orders in store windows. (2) Visit flower stores and flower gardens in the community. (3) Borrow canning equipment for a canning demonstration. (4) Go through a model home or remodeled home. (5) Use girls' homes for making suitable furniture arrangements. (6) Cover a chair for someone in the community. (7) Utilize parks and recreation centers for observation or for care of children. (8) Go to homes to help with the housework, using schedules that have been worked out by class members, and submit reports on results.

ADVANTAGES OF VARIETY

It is especially important for pupils to utilize a large variety of instructional aids. In the first place, variety in any connection tends to stimulate and sustain interest in a subject. Furthermore, it acquaints pupils with many sources of information which will be valuable to them now and after graduation. The wider the variety, the more likely it is that everyone in the group will be able to contribute in one way or another. Many of the aids previously discussed afford experience in arrangement and in use which can be directly applied in a pupil's own home. In fact, any sort of instructional aid which entails some mental or physical activity on the part of the pupil leads to a better application of homemaking knowledge than just "talking about it."

COLLECTING TEACHING AIDS

The collection of instructional aids should not be a hit-or-miss affair, with pupils making or bringing in materials at any time. The

teacher will need to help the pupils realize that only those aids which contribute directly to class goals should be considered essential. Some groups may decide that a committee in charge of collections is preferable. Others may prefer to divide the class into small groups, holding each group responsible for a particular type of material. Any procedure is satisfactory which gives the class the major responsibility in collecting materials and at the same time provides opportunity for each member to make a contribution in one way or another.

Evaluating Teaching Aids

The problem of evaluating instructional aids is a serious one and needs to be given considerable attention. Many of the aids are short-lived and become out-of-date rapidly, and others express limited points of view. Pupils should, therefore, be encouraged to set up and use evaluating devices which will help them to maintain high standards of discrimination. In many instances teachers and pupils have worked out check lists which meet their own needs. An example of such a list is given on page 315.[3]

Using Teaching Aids

Teaching aids have a variety of uses. Some give specific information which is not generally found in textbooks and which helps to enrich and broaden the scope of the program. Others serve to illustrate certain techniques and skills or to stimulate interest along new lines of thought. Still others may serve as standards of procedure by which pupils may be guided to improve their performance along many lines. But all these aids are valuable to teachers and pupils only to the extent that they further the learning process. Not only should each aid have a clearcut purpose, but all of them need to be directly related to the goals under consideration if maximum benefit is to be obtained.

[3] Prepared by Ruth Henning, homemaking teacher in Detroit, Michigan.

Score Card for Choice of Teaching Aids and Devices

		1	2 3	Score
Form of Presentation	1.	Unsuited to pupils' background and experience	Meets the needs of pupils	1 ....
	2.	No challenge to achieve higher standards	Sets higher standards	2 ....
	3.	Difficult to comprehend; requires teacher explanation	Easy to comprehend; can be used by pupils alone	3 ....
	4.	No artistic appeal; unattractive; void of color	Catches interest; attractive; color harmony	4 ....
	5.	Too bulky; fragile, requires special care	Durable, substantial, easily stored	5 ....
Accuracy and Timeliness	6.	Information out-of-date	Information recent	6 ....
	7.	Incomplete, tells only part of story	Complete information given	7 ....
	8.	Narrow in scope	Broad in scope	8 ....
	9.	Unreliable as to information	Backed by reliable tests and recognized authorities	9 ....
Freedom from Bias	10.	Subject matter biased; emphasizes one idea	Broad interpretation of subject	10 ....
	11.	Advertising conspicuous	Advertising inconspicuous	11 ....
Cost	12.	Price not justifiable in relation to value	Money well invested; value received	12 ....
			Total Score	....

Caring For Teaching Aids

Once instructional aids have been acquired, they must be kept in good condition and made accessible to pupils. This means that they should be kept neat and clean and should be carefully handled in order to prolong their usefulness. Since these aids are primarily for the development of the pupil, the responsibility for their care should be given to the class as a group, who in turn may determine among themselves the distribution of this responsibility. Caring for these materials often requires more ingenuity and time than actual expense, but is none the less important if pupils are to receive the maximum benefit from the various aids to be used.

FILING PROCEDURES

Some sort of an effective filing system is necessary for every classroom which uses teaching aids. Although teacher-pupil co-operation is recommended in establishing a filing system, the teacher herself should be familiar with various techniques before the subject is brought up for class discussion. This will save time and make it possible for the teacher to help evaluate pupil suggestions without undue reflection. The teacher will need to guide the pupils to make a plan of organization based on the following factors:

1. The amount of material to be filed, the estimate based preferably on a yearly program.
2. The kind of material to be filed in terms of size, weight, and durability.
3. The equipment on hand which may be adapted to the system agreed upon.
4. The additional equipment which will be necessary.
5. The amount of money available.

It is obvious, of course, that no standard pattern for filing instructional aids can be recommended, but whatever system is used should be simple. Some schools will have more material to be filed and more space in which to file it than others. The point to keep in mind is to allow for the expansion of teaching aids from

year to year with due consideration for materials that will need replacement.

Classifying materials is always a problem. Many of the larger schools employ an adaptation of the Dewey Decimal System used by many libraries. After analyzing the material and classifying it under main headings (not more than ten), the teacher assigns a file number to each heading with decimal numbers for each subdivision, and the location of the material designated. The folder for pamphlets, clippings, and pictures on food and nutrition might be marked 641; that for clothing, 646; that for the home care of children, 649; and so forth. The folders for subdivisions of food might be marked like this: canning, 641.4; recipes and cooking hints, 641.5; salads and sandwiches, 641.8; and so forth. Other schools prefer to classify the materials simply by name although it is often difficult to do this without some overlapping. In such cases, cross references may be necessary.

When instructional aids which are filed away are wanted for individual use, it is well to provide small slips of paper for the pupil's name and the date of the request. One pupil may be chosen to take charge of these slips, checking the materials in and out. Another pupil may be selected to obtain the materials from the files and to file them away after they have been used. These responsibilities may be rotated around the class.

STORAGE

Instructional aids which do not lend themselves to cabinet filing will need to be stored away for future use. Whatever place is chosen should provide enough space so that materials may be found easily. Illustrative materials may be placed in large envelopes or boxes or may be tied up in packages, but in all instances should be clearly marked. Large posters may be kept wrapped in a flat position either on shelves or in drawers or may be put in containers in an upright position. China, pottery, wall furnishings, and textile materials may be placed on shelves or in drawers. Sometimes shelves may be put at the top of a closet for articles that are not frequently used. First-aid and medical equipment should be separated from other materials and kept in a cabinet which can be purchased

or made at small cost. All materials should be kept free from dust, should be protected against moths, and should be checked frequently so that wornout articles may be repaired or discarded. As in the case of evaluating instructional aids, teacher-pupil planning may include a check list for the use, care, and filing of materials. An example of a device which pupils may use to check their work after they have finished their filing is to be found on page 320. The teacher could also use this in checking her own work.

Ownership of Teaching Aids

The question of ownership often arises in regard to many of the instructional aids. Sometimes a teacher may make personal contributions, but unless she designates them as gifts to the department, they rightfully belong to her. This is particularly true of magazine subscriptions that come in her name but are used by the pupils and of books which may be purchased for her own use as well as for the students'. Books and pamphlets that come to her as the teacher of homemaking, however, should be considered as belonging to the department. Some teachers keep their personal materials separate from those belonging to the school so that no misunderstanding may occur. There need be no confusion about property rights, however, if the teacher is careful to label her own books and materials.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Make a collection of high-school homemaking books and evaluate them according to the score card on page 321. What improvements would you suggest?
2. Assemble magazines which are frequently found in homemaking departments and consider the contribution of each to various homemaking goals.
3. As a class prepare a comprehensive bibliography of desirable sources of bulletins and pamphlets for homemaking classes. Write to each source for listings of available materials.
4. Become acquainted with the catalogue issued by the Federal Gov-

ernment which contains a comprehensive list of sources of visual aids and equipment for instructional use in schools. From this catalogue select and order a limited number of bulletins which would seem to be most useful to homemaking teachers.

5. Show several homemaking films and evaluate each in terms of its contribution to specific homemaking goals.
6. Compile a list of instructional aids which might be made by teacher and pupils and explain how each may be used to contribute to pupils' goals. Make a similiar list of aids which might be borrowed by teacher or pupils.
7. In addition to the suggestions given in the chapter for use of people or of school and community resources as teaching aids, add others to the list. Discuss possible factors which tend to prevent the extensive use of these sources of help. To what extent should greater effort probably be made to utilize such sources?
8. Outline a possible procedure for instituting a program for the collection of teaching aids in high-school homemaking classes.
9. Evaluate several teaching materials by use of the score card for choice of teaching aids and devices. (See page 315.) Revise the score card where improvement seems desirable.
10. Discuss techniques for encouraging students to use and care for teaching aids.
11. Observe filing procedures in use in homemaking classes. Collect pictures or descriptions of other ways of filing various kinds of materials. Evaluate these according to points 6–11 on the score card found on page 320. What other points may be evaluated?
12. Consider the effect on a homemaking department when practically all the teaching materials belong personally to the teacher.

Score Card for Use, Care, and Filing of Teaching Aids and Devices[4]

		1	2	3	Score
Method of Using	1.	Purpose indefinite and questionable; no specific goal in mind		Clear-cut purpose; suitable to goal under consideration	1 ....
	2.	Used by teacher alone		Used by group members as well as by teacher	2 ....
	3.	Use of the same material for too many purposes		Wide range of material for point of view expressed	3 ....
Care	4.	Carelessly handled, damaged		Responsibility of group to keep in good condition	4 ....
	5.	Dirty, untidy		Clean, neat	5 ....
	6.	Untidy appearance of file, box, or cabinet		Neat appearance of file, box, or cabinet	6 ....
	7.	Space or room not appropriate for convenient storing		Space or room located for easy accessibility	7 ....
Filing System	8.	Filed according to teacher's plan		Filing system set up by teacher and group	8 ....
	9.	Files kept by teacher		Group shares in keeping files	9 ....
	10.	No index or subject matter divisions; material hard to locate		Indexed for easy accessibility; key to filing system understood by all	10 ....
	11.	Labels inaccurate or not visible		Labels accurate and adequate for purpose	11 ....
				Final Score	....

[4] Prepared by Ruth Henning, homemaking teacher in Detroit, Michigan.

Check List for Choosing Homemaking Books

	1	2	3	Score
Relation to needs	Unsuited to needs of group who will use it		Meets particular needs of group who will use it	....
Organization	Set up on subject matter basis		Grouped around life experiences	
	Confusing and difficult to follow		Easy to understand and follow	....
Content	Out-of-date and limited in scope for field covered		Up-to-date and comprehensive for field covered	
	Suggestions lacking or poor for pupil experiences and evaluation		Useful suggestions given for pupil experiences and evaluation	....
	Illustrations unrelated to main ideas; uninteresting and out-of-date		Illustrations related to main ideas; pleasing and up-to-date	....
	List of supplementary reference incomplete and poorly chosen		List of supplementary references fairly complete and well chosen	....
	Index and table of content inaccurate and incomplete		Index and table of content accurate and detailed	....
Style and vocabulary	Uninteresting in style and vocabulary; too difficult for high school pupils		Interesting in style; vocabulary on a high school level	
Mechanical features	Paper too high a gloss; tears easily		Paper of suitable texture	....
	Print difficult to read		Print easily read	....
	Binding poor quality and unattractive		Binding durable and attractive	....
	Size awkward; either too large or too small		Size in good proportion: convenient to handle	....
			Total Score	....

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Financial Administration

There can be no resentment, no argument, no nagging when everyone understands about the expenses of the homemaking department, and when each can contribute his best ideas to the making of a spending plan.

ADAPTED FROM "MONEY MANAGEMENT" HOUSEHOLD FINANCE CORPORATION

THE EXPANSION of homemaking education within the past twenty-five years has brought with it a realization that every homemaking teacher should have some knowledge of financial administration. This knowledge need not be technical, but it should include the ability to make financial plans, familiarity with educational values and processes, and an acquaintance with present and potential sources of revenue. In brief, how to budget expenses, buy supplies, pay bills, and keep financial records are now considered desirable prerequisites for the teaching of homemaking units. One of the chief reasons for this seems to be the marked trend throughout the country at the present time toward teaching pupils the full meaning of the word "management." As prospective homemakers in a complex, economic society, boys and girls need to have first-hand knowledge regarding adequate ways and means of managing the material equipment which becomes a necessary part of their daily lives. It is believed, therefore, that one of the best ways to teach good management is to show pupils how a homemaking department can run smoothly and efficiently on a sound business basis.

Ways of Financing a Department

Three types of procedure for financing a homemaking department have been in use for a number of years. (1) In some schools pupils pay a nominal fee or bring all their own supplies and materials. (2) In other localities the department, itself, is responsible for raising the necessary funds. This is often done by holding food sales, suppers, and bazaars or by soliciting funds and materials from the merchants in town. (3) Still other schools finance the department by a special allotment from the school board.

Needless to say, the first two procedures are far from satisfactory. In the first instance many students are prevented from enrolling in homemaking classes because of the fee. Having the pupils furnish materials and supplies produces unfavorable comparisons between pupils of high and low economic levels which may cause emotional disturbances among pupils from families with less money at their disposal. In the second instance, holding a department responsible for the raising of its own funds not only imposes an undue hardship upon the teacher, whose time and energy may be already overtaxed, but also is far from being a business-like procedure. Lack of financial recognition by a school board lowers the prestige of homemaking education and places a premium on a teacher's ability to raise money instead of on her teaching ability where it rightfully belongs. The most satisfactory procedure and the one most prevalent throughout the country is to have the department financed by school funds, with a definite allotment each year to cover expenses. Homemaking education then functions on the same basis as other school departments, where teachers can devote their time and energy to efficient teaching.

Suggestions for Financial Planning

There are various ways in which financial planning can be made to function smoothly and efficiently. The following have been tried by teachers and found to be practical.

CO-OPERATIVE PLANNING

Most homemaking teachers are expected to co-operate with the head of the department and possibly the administration in planning the financial setup for the department. In keeping with the goal-seeking procedure on which this book is based, it is believed that pupils will gain valuable practical experience by being given a share in determining what expenditures are necessary for an adequate program. This procedure fosters a spirit of personal ownership and a feeling of responsibility which leads to the wise expenditure of available funds and the protection of the equipment and supplies to be used.

PLANNING EARLY IN THE YEAR

In many schools financial planning or budget-making, as it is often called, must be done several weeks prior to the beginning of the fiscal year. Since there is no uniformity in the country as to when a fiscal year begins, teachers must be prepared to meet existing conditions. If a teacher is expected to submit a budget at the beginning of the fall term, she should have a definite idea before school opens of what supplies and equipment will be needed. Her knowledge of the situation may be based on previous teaching experience in the school or on a survey made before school opens. In either case as soon as plans have been set up for the yearly program, the teacher should be prepared to accept suggestions from the pupils in regard to a budget and be ready to justify the proposed expenditures upon request from the head of the department or the administration. If the budget is to be submitted at the end of the year in anticipation of the coming fall term, the teacher may have the class evaluate the present budget and decide what changes, if any, are necessary for the next year. In both instances the pupils should understand that a budget is only an estimate and must, therefore, be of a tentative nature, since unforeseen circumstances, such as increase or decrease in enrollment or the inability to obtain certain supplies and equipment, may necessitate a revision of plans.

ALLOTMENTS FOR UNITS, EQUIPMENT, BOOKS, AND MAGAZINES

Financial planning, of course, should never be a lump-sum esti-

mate. Such budgets are not only difficult to explain and justify in conversation with the administration but are not considered businesslike. Proposed expenditures should probably be broken down into allotments for each unit and should include also a detailed list of necessary equipment, books, and magazines.

SPECIAL PROJECTS

It is not to be expected that every project planned will be financed by the school board. The teacher will need to determine very carefully what expenses may be included in the budget and then plan how additional funds may be raised. Although previous comments indicated that it was not advisable for pupils to finance the expenses of a course, earning money for "extras" is another matter. Special projects, of course, may vary all the way from buying a lamp for a living room to equipping an outdoor play center for preschool children. In general it may be well to guide the class to choose some project which the school board may not be completely "sold on" and for which there may be uncertainty about obtaining funds. The idea is not to encourage the school board to shirk their responsibility but to show them that the pupils themselves are willing to co-operate in earning money for a project which they feel is worth while. Sometimes a contribution is made in the nature of a gift from the class as a group. This procedure fosters the spirit of co-operation because it is a gift toward something beyond the realm of personal gain.

Setting Up the Budget

So far no one has been able to devise a budget form suitable for every homemaking department. Conditions vary from one school to the next depending upon the size of the department, the equipment to be maintained, and the goals to be achieved. In general, however, any form which presents a clear picture of expenditures is satisfactory. Care should be taken, however, to present a simple yet comprehensive picture of the yearly program, since many school boards think of homemaking in terms of sewing and cooking classes only. If a budget is well formulated and clearly presented, its

chances of adoption will be greatly enhanced. In estimating necessary expenditures teachers and pupils will be helped by keeping in mind the following factors.

THE BASIS FOR THE BUDGET

The best single basis on which to predict the future is the past. As a general rule, there is very little use planning for a large budget when it is known in advance that the proposed expenditures *greatly* exceed the amount available in previous years. Some increase may be justifiable, but care should be taken not to make the difference in expenditures between one year and the next too great.

LONG-TERM PLANNING

Planning expenditures of equipment and supplies for more than one year at a time enables the administration, the teacher, and the pupils to have before them constantly, goals for improving the efficiency and attractiveness of the department.

When plans are made for several years, fluctuations in the cost of materials will need to be taken into account from year to year just as in setting up goals for class work and homework it is necessary to allow for a change in goals to meet modified conditions. A wise teacher will make it a point to keep up with these changes so that the financial estimates will be as accurate as possible.

THE SIZE OF CLASS ENROLLMENTS

In many sections of the country classes in homemaking education have increased in size from year to year. Although an increase in the number of pupils to be instructed does not always require a proportionate increase in expenditures, the teacher should be prepared to estimate to what extent present equipment and supplies may accommodate an increased enrollment.

ITEMS THAT MAY NO LONGER BE NECESSARY

A critical examination should be made to determine whether or not there are any items that may be eliminated. The mere fact that an item has always been in the budget does not necessarily mean that the item should always remain there.

IMPROVEMENTS FOR MORE EFFICIENT LEARNING

Advances in scientific equipment and techniques are occurring every year. While it is seldom necessary to make a complete revision of laboratory equipment or even of classroom techniques, occasional changes tend to stimulate interest and to motivate pupil learning. Modifications which entail considerable additional expenditure, however, should never be faddish but should be based on a sound evaluation of what will be gained by the change.

"PADDING"

Every budget should be prepared on the basis of actual needs. Neither a large surplus nor a deficit is to be desired. A large unexpended balance is apt to give the impression that those constructing the budget asked for an excess amount. A deficit is apt to be taken as conclusive evidence of bad financing. Making estimates in excess of actual needs with the hope that a cut in the budget will leave enough money with which the department can function adequately is a poor policy. A department which has the reputation of "padding" its budget loses social esteem. The procedure of "padding" makes it difficult for the administration or the school board to place a true evaluation on the work to be done. It becomes impossible to distinguish between the activities and equipment that are superfluous and those that are necessary for the adequate growth and development of the pupils. The best budget is one in which the income and the expenditures balance at the end of the year.

THREE TYPES OF BUDGETS

Illustrations for the three types of expenditures ordinarily planned for in homemaking departments follow. The first form for operation expenses is based on the calendars in Chapter 11 for seventh and eighth grade and senior-high-school classes.

The second form includes a plan for and a record of book and magazine expenses. Most teachers plan at least a year in advance in regard to the purchase of these things. If the school already has a separate library budget, the homemaking teacher should check to

see that her requests for books and magazines are not duplicated. In some schools a central library committee composed of departmental representatives determine according to the departmental enrollment of pupils, the final distribution of the sum available for library needs. The point to keep in mind is to make an all-inclusive estimate at a given time of what is needed and not to make a practice of putting in requests for special purchases during the year.

The third form, based on long-term planning, illustrates a plan for and a record of equipment expenditures for a particular homemaking department.

Plan for and Record of Operation Expenditures
Homemaking Department of —— High School
19— to 19— [1]

Approximate length of unit	*Seventh Grade Homemaking* [2] (25 students)	*Proposed Expenditure*	*Actual Expenditure*
1 week	Organization of work	$ 0.00	....
1 week	Getting acquainted	0.00	....
3 weeks	Making friends — boys and girls: games; illustrative material; supplies for entertaining	2.00	....
12 weeks	Food for health:		
	food supplies	15.00	....
	other supplies; illustrative material	2.50	....
5 weeks	Helping at home — sharing home life: illustrative material; self-evaluation material	1.50	....
14 weeks	Helping with my clothes: illustrative material; samples; accessories	4.00	....
	Eighth Grade Homemaking [2] (22 students)		
1 week	Organization of work	0.00	....
8 weeks	Enjoying small children — care of emergencies: first-aid materials; toy materials; craft material	3.50	....
4 weeks	Looking our best:		
	grooming supplies	1.00	....
	illustrative material; self-evaluation materials	1.50	....
9 weeks	Choosing clothes for the junior miss: supplies; illustrative material	2.50	....
4 weeks	Care of my clothes: supplies; illustrative material	1.50	....
10 weeks	Helping with family meals:		
	food supplies (suppers)	11.00	....
	other supplies	2.00	....

[1] Based on calendar in Chapter 11, "Planning for the Year, the Unit, the Day."
[2] Classes meet twice per week.

Approximate length of unit		*Proposed Expenditure*	*Actual Expenditure*
	Homemaking I (20 students)		
1 week	Let's get acquainted	0.00	....
12 weeks	What foods should I eat to be and stay healthy?		
	canning supplies	4.00	....
	food supplies	23.00	....
	other supplies; illustrative material	3.00	....
3 weeks	How can I make the holiday season a gay one?		
	supplies; accessories	2.50	....
2 weeks	First aid first, not second:		
	first-aid supplies	2.00	....
14 weeks	Let's look at "me":		
	supplies; illustrative material, samples	3.00	....
4 weeks	My own room:		
	booklets; charts; samples	2.50	....
	Homemaking II (18 students)		
2 weeks	How does art help in my clothing problems?		
	Illustrative materials	$1.00	....
11 weeks	The clothing needs of my family		
	Supplies	2.50	....
5 weeks	How can I make a child's life happier?		
	Materials for play school	6.00	....
12 weeks	The food for one man's family		
	Food supplies	22.00	....
	Other supplies	4.00	....
6 weeks	My conduct when with others		
	Illustrative materials; supplies for entertaining	2.50	....
	Homemaking III (15 students)		
3 weeks	Beauty in the home and in the community		
	Illustrative materials	1.50	....
5 weeks	Housing problems and furnishing a home		
	Supplies for renovating bedroom of department	3.50	....
	Illustrative materials	1.00	....
8 weeks	Special food and nutrition		
	Food supplies	15.00	....
	Other supplies	3.00	....
2 weeks	Let's recreate (family and community recreation)		
	Materials for posters, games, refreshments	2.00	....
8 weeks	Special clothing problems		
	Laboratory supplies; illustrative material	3.00	....
5 weeks	As a consumer		
	Illustrative material; pamphlets	2.00	....
3 weeks	The job for me		
	Pamphlets; illustrative material	3.00	....
2 weeks	How can I make my future home life a happy and successful one?	0.00	....
	Total proposed expenditure	$160.00	
	Total number of students	100	
	Average proposed expenditure for each student	$ 1.60	
	Total actual expenditure		....
	Average actual expenditure for each student		....

Plan for and Record of Book and Magazine Expenditures
Homemaking Department of —— High School
for the year 19— [1]

Name of Books and Magazines	*Proposed Expenditure*	*Actual Expenditure*
Books		
....	......	......
....	......	......
....	......	......
....	......	......
....	......	......
Magazines		
....	......	......
....	......	......
....	......	......
....	......	......
....	......	......
....	......	......

Total Proposed Expenditure.....
Total Actual Expenditure.......

[1] Recommendation for the next year: Books will be most needed in the area of *care and development of the small child.*

Plan for and Record of Equipment Expenditures
Homemaking Department of —— High School
19— to 19—

	List and cost of equipment to be purchased during the current school year			Estimated additions and cost of equipment for the next school year		Estimated additions and cost of equipment for future years	
	List of equipment	Estimated cost	Actual cost	List of equipment	Estimated cost	List of equipment	Estimated cost
Homemaking Dining-Living Room	Pictures, and pottery Nest of tables Secretary	$10.00 20.00 30.00	....	Dishes Material for luncheon sets Accessories, e.g., book ends	$12.00 4.50 5.00	Occasional chair Lamp Draperies	$30.00 10.00 10.00
Bedroom	Bedspread	6.00	....	Bedding Curtains Lamp Other accessories	8.00 5.00 5.00 4.00	Occasional chair	20.00
Kitchen	Kitchen equipment Materials for refinishing table surfaces	4.00 5.00	....	Curtains Kitchen equipment Kitchen linen Built-in shelves (made by shop class)	8.00 4.00 9.50 10.00	Kitchen equipment	4.00
Clothing Laboratory	Curtains	10.00	....	Display case (made by shop class)	15.00	Sewing machine	60.00
	Total	$85.00	....		$90.00		$134.00

Handling Money

Whenever possible it is well to let the pupils handle some of the finances of the department. If they have already been given a share in setting up the budget, they are bound to be interested in the

actual expenditure of the money itself. In fact, some of the items in the budget may be planned especially for student buying. Many pupils will undoubtedly have had some experience in the handling of money and may be more skillful in buying than those with less experience, but in either case guidance will be necessary. A wise teacher will account for every penny entrusted in her care.

RECORD OF EXPENDITURES

Every homemaking teacher should keep a record of expenditures. In some schools special forms are provided; in others the procedure is left to the discretion of the teacher. As a rule, any form is acceptable if it presents a clear picture of what is spent. The three forms suggested in this chapter would be considered satisfactory in most instances after the data are filled in and the receipted bills clipped to the forms. In cases where pupils buy small items and no receipts are given, a petty cash book should be provided in which pupils may record the items at the time they are purchased. Accounts should never be carried in the memory. When the final accounting is made, receipts signed by the pupils doing the buying may be attached to the record form the teacher is using.

Briefly, there are four outstanding points to remember for a good financial report:

1. It should be carefully and accurately prepared.
2. It should be easy to interpret.
3. It should present facts honestly, fairly, and clearly.
4. It should follow, as far as possible, standard procedures.

INVENTORIES

Many schools require a yearly or semi-yearly report of supplies and equipment and provide special forms for the procedure. In some schools, however, the teacher may use her own judgment in the matter, but the form used should show good organization. If no special procedure is prescribed, the teacher may organize the inventory around each room in the department and then summarize the report. Whichever procedure is used should provide for check-

ing supplies and equipment for several years. It should not be necessary to start a new form each time an inventory is made. All inventories, of course, should be recorded in duplicate or triplicate so that copies may be available upon demand.

Pupils may help in taking an inventory. This not only saves the teacher time and effort but gives the pupils an opportunity to learn how to arrange supplies and materials so that they may be easily and accurately checked. Taking inventory also teaches pupils that they must be careful to account for every single article or piece of equipment. If certain items which are supposed to be carried over from one inventory to the next are missing and cannot be found, the teacher will see that a duplicate record of the missing articles is made so that both the principal and the teacher will have a copy for their files. The teacher may also point out to the class the difference between supplies and equipment: *supplies* refer to small, nonpermanent materials (not textbooks) used for instructional purposes; *equipment* means the larger and more permanent items used in the maintenance of the laboratory, items which require replacement less frequently.

Filing

The keynote of a good filing system is simplicity. A teacher should be able to know at once where every bit of information pertaining to financial planning is kept. It is not necessary, however, to have an expensive filing cabinet for this purpose; simple manila envelopes may be just as satisfactory. In fact four such envelopes may be all that are necessary — one for each of the three types of expenditures recently described (operation expenses, book and magazine purchases, and equipment expenditures) and one for inventory.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. To what extent would it be practical to use parents in financial planning? What suggestions can you offer for obtaining their co-operation?
2. Consider suggestions for ways in which homemaking classes might

be able to earn money for special projects. Evaluate each as a learning experience.

3. What is the customary procedure in budget-making in some schools of your acquaintance?
4. What factors are likely to produce an increase or decrease in expenditures for homemaking education?
5. As a group plan some device for rating the homemaking department budget. Then collect as many budgets from homemaking departments as possible. Rate these budgets and the ones on pages 328 and 329 by means of the device constructed.
6. What should be the homemaking teachers' attitude toward financial reports?
7. How can you justify an inventory in view of the amount of time and energy involved in preparing it?

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Adapting Homemaking to Meet the Needs of Different Groups

Knowledge is in every country the surest basis of public happiness.
GEORGE WASHINGTON

One of the most important aspects of homemaking education at the present time is the development of an enriched program which will help different groups of people solve more adequately the problems of family and community living. Homemaking ceased long ago to be a classroom subject taught only to girls and has now become a field in which parents and sons and other members in a community also receive instruction. The present chapter is concerned with two aspects of homemaking, that for boys and that for adults.

Homemaking for Boys

The trend in education today is to view the home as a functioning machine in which all members participate to produce comfort and happiness. The traditional theory that domestic tasks belong only to women has become a thing of the past. Educators are realizing as never before not only that homemaking education is important for boys but that many of them actually enjoy participating in household activities. The early years of World War II, of course, caused cultural values to undergo a profound change for both adolescent boys and girls. An increasing number of women learned to run machines and electrical apparatus with great efficiency while an

increasing number of men became excellent cooks, nurses, and even housekeepers. Any prejudice that may have previously existed in high schools regarding the advisability of giving boys training in the material phases of family life is rapidly being dispelled. The problem is to obtain adequate equipment and instruction to meet the needs of this particular group.

SCOPE

Homemaking education for boys has been in existence for some time, although the program has varied greatly in different sections of the country. In some schools boys have been encouraged to take courses in health and hygiene, care of children, consumer buying, and home management along with girls. In other schools, separate courses have been given to boys in the subjects just mentioned, with special emphasis, for instance, on personal finances, camp cookery, selection of clothing, and such forms of sewing as darning socks, mending sweaters, and sewing on buttons. Still other sections of the country have offered "exchange classes" in which boys enrolled in agriculture or shop exchange classes for one or more weeks with girls taking homemaking. The most successful courses, however, have probably been in the field of family relationships and social development which have been a part of integrated or core programs.

The distribution of boys enrolled in homemaking classes according to grade levels is very interesting. Research indicates that although only 1 per cent of the boys registered in schools offering homemaking courses are enrolled in these courses, the percentage increases when different grade levels are considered: 1 per cent in the seventh and eighth grades, 2 per cent in the ninth and tenth grades, 5 per cent in the eleventh grade, and 9 per cent in the twelfth grade.[1] This tendency for increasing percentages of boys to be enrolled in homemaking courses in the later years of high school is evident throughout the country, but is particularly marked in the Pacific region, where fifteen per cent of the homemaking enrollment in the twelfth grade consists of boys.

[1] U.S. Office of Education, *Home Economics in Public Schools* (Vocational Division Bulletin, No. 213, Home Economics Education Series, No. 24; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1941), pp. 39–41.

FUTURE

As knowledge of adolescence progresses, it becomes increasingly evident that the content and goals of education are pretty much alike for boys and girls. The same general principles of learning apply equally well to both groups with only little variation in needs and interests at different age levels. Even slight differences in physical maturation and social maturity are ironed out in a year or two. Many educators believe, therefore, that too sharp a distinction should not be made in subject matter between the interests and needs of boys and those of girls. Both groups can set up similar goals on their own initiative with different experiences for individual members.

Since boys and girls of high-school age are within a few years of establishing their own homes, it is believed that education about family life should be made available to boys as well as girls. Both groups need to know what factors go into the maintenance of wholesome family living. Knowledge of the mechanics of housekeeping may be essential to girls and will have a general interest for some boys, but ability to establish adequate social relationships depends as much upon the male members of the household as the women. When a group of young people, both boys and girls, met in 1942 to discuss the needs of youth, they stated among other things that they wanted more responsibility at home, more experience with money, and more vocational guidance.[2] Recent trends in education indicate that these needs are gradually being met. Integrated or core programs with courses designed to fit adolescent boys and girls for some of their responsibilities as members of a home and as parents of children are already gaining popularity. The future promises interesting developments along these lines.

Homemaking for Adults

The time when anyone seriously challenged the maximum "one is never too old to learn" has long since passed. Scientific research

[2] Muriel W. Brown, "Community Action to Meet Family Needs," *Journal of Home Economics*, September, 1942.

has revealed that persons are rarely too old to learn and that from forty to seventy years of age they can learn as readily as they could when they were eight to sixteen years old, a period popularly assumed to represent the peak of learning ability. When adults attribute inability to learn to their age, they usually lack motivation or intelligence for the task at hand. Under the same circumstances they would have failed to achieve results at fifteen. The only limitation which older adults possess is that they react more slowly. This is a physical characteristic due to a decline in the amount of energy available, but it does not affect the ability to understand. It simply means that if people fifty-five years old start to learn a new task, it will take them 10 to 20 per cent longer to reach the same degree of excellence as it would have had they been twenty years old.

Although research has shown that adults *can* learn, this does not necessarily imply that they *do* learn. The chief obstacle to effective adult learning is one of motivation. Many people feel that the termination of school represents an end to all formal learning. Still others become so involved in their daily tasks that they think they have no time for anything else. Many who do have leisure time prefer to spend it in physical rather than in mental exercise. Actually only a very small percentage of adults are voluntarily interested in the pursuit of knowledge or the acquisition of physical and intellectual skills. This means that the burden of responsibility for fostering adult education rests on those who believe that there is a genuine need for this type of learning.

THE NEED AND PURPOSE

Mention has already been made of the fact that we live in a rapidly changing world. The salvation of each generation rests not only on a recognition of these changes by both young and old but on an adjustment to them as a part of our daily lives. To a certain extent schools can interpret these changes to their pupils and teach them to cope with and solve the many problems which arise as the result of a complex social environment. The burden of responsibility for making the development of these young people as adequate and at the same time as wholesome and happy as possible rests,

however, on the adult population. Furthermore, if adults are to be efficient parents and co-operative citizens, they must also learn to meet new and varied conditions both in the home and in the community in which they live. Until they recognize and appreciate the many problems involved, they will not be able to pass on to the coming generation the cultural values to which it is entitled. Since schools represent the medium through which people are most easily educated, the responsibility of fostering adult education rests primarily on the school system. And to be really effective, the education of children and young people and the education of adults should be parallel programs.

For adults this education means keeping up with changes in housekeeping techniques, with more efficient budgeting, with better preparation and serving of meals, with new ways of maintaining optimum health for each member of the family, and with innumerable other phases of the mechanics of living. It also means acquiring a better understanding of the relationships involved in home and community life, especially in terms of more adequate child-training. And finally, none the less important, is the continued personal development of adults for the purposes of promoting wholesome, co-operative living through self-growth and self-expression.

THE SCOPE

In recent years adult education has become a nationwide movement. Every state in the union has participated in some sort of activity pertaining to adult training. All types of men and women have benefited from the work. The Smith-Hughes Act and other Vocational Education Acts have made funds available to the public schools for adult education in homemaking. This means that many homemaking teachers with regular high-school schedules have been called upon to extend their teaching to one or more adult groups, and that other teachers must also be prepared to initiate courses as the demand for adult education increases.

At the present time the scope of adult education in homemaking is characterized by three phases of training: (1) parent and family training; (2) vocational training; (3) avocational training.

Parent and Family Training

In nearly every city and town and in about 60 per cent of our rural communities, organized programs dealing with various phases of family life are now in progress. These programs vary from learning how to plan and manage "livable" homes to evaluating the human relationship aspects of family living. Some programs consist of short courses dealing with one or more units in homemaking, while others are set up to include a longtime program covering a progressively wider range of subject materials. Although every program is designed to meet the needs and requirements of adult groups, most homemaking educators believe in working toward a composite offering of homemaking experiences which will appeal to many types of individuals in a community. The larger areas are considered to be as follows:

Area 1. Family relationships, child development, parent education
Area 2. Family meals and food problems
Area 3. Clothing: selection, care, and construction
Area 4. Family health
Area 5. Housing: art and furnishings
Area 6. Management and consumer problems in the home

Vocational Training

One of the basic principles of democracy is that all individuals should be permitted to develop in accordance with their inborn capacities. This principle implies training for an occupation which is suitable and which will guarantee reasonable economic security. Much of the occupational training for younger adults is taken care of in classes set up under the Vocational Education Acts (see Chapter 20, "Federal and State Organization for Vocational Education"). These classes are really continuation courses of secondary-school experience. The program also provides instruction which supplements the adult's daily employment. Such instruction would be for adults engaged in agricultural occupations and for those in distributive occupations, such as owners of small stores or shops, experienced salesmen and others who wish to establish a retail

business, stock and shipping clerks in retail stores, and salespersons and retailers who are unemployed and seeking re-employment. Other programs for working girls employed in offices, in factories, and as maids in private homes deal with personal and social problems based on the needs of the group. These courses have considerable value in promoting more efficient work habits. In some sections of the country before war industries absorbed most out-of-school youth, classes for unemployed young girls were initiated with the idea of helping them to improve their own home life or to prepare them to earn a living wage. Many of these girls had had only one or two years in high school and were inadequately prepared for any wage-earning occupation. Much of the work was directed toward the attainment of efficient housekeeping techniques with the ultimate goal of preparing them for possible household employment.[3]

At present vocational classes are largely attended by young adults, although some older people are interested in training which will help them to understand and adjust to the technological and economic changes which are constantly taking place today with the view to equipping themselves for advancement in their work or for a more difficult job.

Although homemaking programs for out-of-school youth are still in a formative stage, the postwar period holds great promise for an expansion along various lines. Since many adolescents reaching sixteen or eighteen years of age will be competing with men and women who have returned from the armed services, programs may center around vocational guidance and training for adjustment to personal and community problems. Care should be taken, however, not to make too sharp a distinction between youth and adults. The best way for both groups to understand one another's problems is through co-operative learning.

Avocational Training

The forty-hour week in most forms of industry and the time-sav-

[3] For other examples of out-of-school programs for youth, see Bess Goodykoontz and Beulah I. Coon, editors, *Family Living and Our Schools* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1941), Chap. 7.

ing improvements in the home have made it possible for adults to participate in educational programs for individual self-expression. Classes in metal and woodwork and in various hobbies which interest adults have been carried on largely in urban areas. Clubs for out-of-school youth, especially in rural communities, have stressed personal problems, health habits, and consumer buying techniques which lead to a better all-around development of the individual. The extent of this type of program depends, of course, upon the amount of leisure time available to people who work in industry and in the home, and upon public opinion as to how much money should be spent on classes of a recreational nature. Future social and economic events will determine just how far avocational development will be possible.

Organization of Adult Homemaking Programs

Much of the success of an adult education program depends upon its organization. Instructors must be well qualified and schedules carefully arranged. All plans need to be flexible in nature and adapted to meet the needs and interests of various social, economic, and educational levels. Stereotyped procedures should be avoided although certain basic considerations should be kept in mind. The following suggestions for classes may be helpful to administrators and teachers.

TEACHERS OF ADULT CLASSES

Throughout the country homemaking teachers have had considerable experience in carrying out programs for adults, while many others will undoubtedly be called upon in the near future to participate in even more comprehensive programs. Experienced teachers have learned that their relationship with adult groups must be on a somewhat different basis than that with high-school pupils, not because there is any basic difference between the two groups, but because accumulated experiences in the passing years tend to make most adults less flexible in their mental and physical processes. A homemaking teacher with limited experience must,

therefore, learn to understand adults and the conditions which they face if she is to become a successful teacher of adults.

A young teacher, for example, accustomed to well-established standards of living does not realize the low standards that many older adults have, nor can she anticipate the hundred and one different personalities from sixteen to sixty-five with whom she may be associated. Some of these adults will have preconceived ideas that will be difficult to modify. Others are going to be bored; and still others will be sensitive, fearful of criticism, and easily discouraged. Many will come to class extremely fatigued and will be unable to participate actively. Some will lack manipulative skills in the mechanics of home living, and many will even refuse to learn new techniques. Others will need to achieve personal success before self-confidence can be established. Many adults will be hesitant about discussing personal needs and interests; others, however, if not carefully guided, will monopolize a group discussion with intimate personal problems of no interest or value to the group. Some will not know the meaning of the word "budget," and although they may be able to stretch the family income to meet the immediate needs of the family, they may never be able to comprehend a budget-plan that functions systematically.

In order to evaluate adult personalities and to arrive at the most appropriate techniques for handling adult groups, a homemaking teacher should have certain qualifications. For teaching vocational and technical courses her *education* should include the completion of a four-year course in homemaking leading to a bachelor's degree and a teaching certificate issued by the state department of public instruction; or at least two years of college training in the area of homemaking for which a certificate of approval has been issued; or specific training equivalent to college instruction in the field assigned, for which a certificate of approval has been issued.

Her *experience* should include a large measure of responsibility in home experience for at least two years; or sufficient trade or professional experience to insure a thorough knowledge of the subject; or sufficient training experience to give confidence in conducting adult homemaking classes.

In addition to these qualifications a teacher should possess *gen-*

eral characteristics such as a high degree of interest in and enthusiasm for adult education. She will also need unlimited vitality and a keen sense of humor, since some of her classes will be held in the evening after a regular day's teaching. Last but not least she should have those personal qualities that win friends and command respect as a leader.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF CLASSES

The organization of short unit courses has proved to be the most practical, the number and length of the units to be determined by the character of the work selected and by the needs of the group. The units may be independent or organized on a progressive plan. The following basic considerations have proved to be practical:

Meetings once or twice a week covering eight to twenty lessons.

Number of persons for each class to be decided by local conditions.

Class periods one to two hours in length.

Classes to meet at a time most suitable for the group.

Provisions to be made for funds for suitable reference and illustrative materials and such supplies as are needed for effective teaching.

FINANCING THE PROGRAM

Adult programs in homemaking promoted by the board of education in cities and towns are financed largely by the Federal and State Board of Vocational Education (see Chapter 20). The latter reimburses the salaries in all or in part of certain people certified to teach different phases of homemaking education. These include (*a*) the all-day homemaking teacher whose salary may cover adult and all-day classes; (*b*) the itinerant teacher or full-time adult teacher and parent-education worker; (*c*) teachers of special units; (*d*) teachers devoting full time to adult homemaking.

Equipment is usually furnished by the school board, which generally takes care of the expenses connected with the building and also a part of the teacher's salary not paid from federal or state funds. If additional expenses are necessary for reference and illus-

trative materials, they may either be provided by the school board, be obtained from the adult group in the form of a class fee, be solicited from interested community organizations, or come from some endowment fund.

INITIATING A PROGRAM

Surveying the Community

In communities where classes for adults are contemplated, the teacher will first need to make a careful survey. Suggestions for a comprehensive survey for teachers coming into a new community have already been given in Chapter 11, "Planning for the Year, the Unit, the Day." The same information, along with additional data on any adult homemaking programs that have already functioned, would help in the organization of adult classes.

Considering Conscious Needs

After studying the community in terms of the needs, interests, and abilities of its adult members, the teacher will be in a better position to know what courses will probably benefit the participating groups the most. Her ideas, however, may not coincide with those of certain people in the community who may have already indicated what subjects they would like to study. When this is the case, care must be taken not to assume the "here-are-things-you-should-learn" attitude. The teacher will need to keep in mind that since adult education is voluntary, many men and women participate in it because of their own conscious needs. On the other hand, there are innumerable adults who do not have any preconceived ideas of what they would like to study but may be interested in those things which are made available to them. When confronted with something new, they often respond very favorably to what is suggested. However, before effective participation can be expected, the teacher will need to do considerable promotion, especially in communities where adult education is new.

Arousing Interest in a Broad Homemaking Program

In order to create an interest in adult education, adults must be given information about what homemaking teachers have to offer

in their classes. This can be done in various ways — by putting articles in the newspapers, by talking before organizations, or by sending announcements to the homes of the pupils. Selecting an advisory committee of key people from various community organizations, and providing them with adequate information which they can pass on to others, is another way of arousing interest in the homemaking program. All publicity, of course, should have the backing of the school board, the superintendent, and the principal.

It is also important to stress the fact that homemaking education is for everyone. Some people have a false idea that if they are good housekeepers they do not need additional instruction. The teacher's responsibility is to make it clear that homemaking education is something more than learning manipulative household skills and that it includes comprehensive instruction in community and family relationships — information which everyone needs. Men as well as women should be encouraged to attend classes. Modern ideas of family living are founded on a partnership basis in which men have knowledge of nutrition, consumer buying, health, housing, child development, and other phases of family life.

Publicity work should also attempt to inform non-English-speaking groups of the advantages of homemaking education. In a community where one racial group predominates, it is often possible to obtain teachers of that nationality who can interpret American customs to these people. Classes for colored people should be especially encouraged, since their present status involves many family and community problems that need solving. In fact, all types of Americans regardless of economic or educational status should be made aware of the opportunities for enrichment through homemaking education.

PLANNING A BALANCED PROGRAM

A balanced program may be described as one that offers more than one aspect of homemaking. These aspects may be given as separate courses, or one course may include at least three units of work in different areas. (See page 340 for the areas.) For example, three different courses might be: (*a*) Family Relationships; (*b*) Clothing

and Art in the Home; (*c*) Home Furnishing. Or one course might be called Home and Family Problems, with Unit I, Management and Consumer Problems; Unit II, Clothing and the Family; Unit III, Family Relationships.

Many homemaking teachers believe in setting up a long-time program in which each course or unit is a contributing factor to the whole program. This may be advisable for adult groups who have had considerable training and experience, since they can visualize the extent of such a program and see its value more readily than those with less training and experience. For example, the work could cover a period of three years which would provide a balanced program of adequate experiences when completed.

A Suggested Three-Year Program Based on the Seasons

	Fall	*Winter*	*Spring*
First Year	Where there's a will, there's a wardrobe	Intelligent buying	Background for rooms
Second Year	Keeping our children healthy	Crafts for the home	Sew smartly
Third Year	You are what you eat	Making the most of your leisure time	Keeping healthy

For most groups, however, it will probably be best to start out with a unit and, as interests grow and related problems arise, work toward a more expansive program. The teacher will need to be guided by the general level of intelligence of the group and the amount of education and experience which the different members have had. She may offer the following units to a group and have them choose one or more subjects.

The selection, care, preparation, and serving of foods; nutrition; and marketing — with particular attention to the management problems involved.

Child training for mothers and fathers based on problems of parenthood or child behavior and child training.

Clothing selection and textile buying; clothing construction, repair, care, and remodeling.

Buying of household commodities; standards for consumer protection.

Family relationships; leisure-time activities; community responsibilities.

Home nursing; child care; first-aid; and invalid cookery.

Business management of the home: accounting, budgeting, and the organization of the household activities.

Selection, arrangement, and care of the house and its equipment.

CO-OPERATIVE PLANNING IN ADULT CLASSES

Although people, especially adults, can learn from one another, a teacher will need as much knowledge of methods in dealing with adult groups as she does with younger pupils. After all, method in teaching is simply systematic guidance in the learning process. If a teacher has been accustomed to using co-operative procedures with high-school pupils in planning a program, she can apply the same principles to adult groups. At first, however, she may not obtain as much co-operation from an adult group as from younger pupils. The procedure of planning the details of a program may be entirely new to many adults, who often have a preconceived idea that the program is planned for them in advance and that all they have to do is to follow instructions. The teacher may overcome this attitude by making it clear to the group that since the course is planned for them, they may share in deciding what shall be learned.

SETTING UP GOALS

Once the area or unit of a program has been decided upon, it then becomes feasible to set up goals or objectives based on the interests and needs of the group. Research indicates that organized adult classes in home-life education are far more successful when definite goals and objectives are set up and co-operatively planned by the teacher and adults.[4] While it may not be possible to set up the

[4] L. Belle Pollard, *Adult Education in Homemaking* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1939), p. 46.

goals in terms of all the interests and needs of the group, the field may be narrowed down to include those which cover as many individual needs and interests as possible yet which fit into the course as a whole. An open discussion may be held and suggestions for goals written on the board. If the group is particularly hesitant about participating in a discussion, written suggestions may be called for. These may be tabulated by the teacher and later submitted to the group for discussion or given to a committee to decide what goals shall be used. The teacher, however, should take care not to push the group toward predetermined goals which may be too difficult for them to attain. Success is a vital factor in dealing with adults, since failure to achieve causes them to lose interest in the learning process.

EXPERIENCES INVOLVING VARIED TECHNIQUES

Various experiences may be used to achieve the goals or objectives set up by the group. Techniques include group discussions, demonstrations, laboratory work, panel discussions, symposiums, forums, lectures, and others. Probably no one of these techniques should be employed exclusively in teaching adult groups. Experienced teachers have learned that a combination of several in a particular course produces the best results. The techniques chosen will necessarily depend upon what the teacher and the group believe will best stimulate group thinking, sustain interest, and produce the most efficient learning. Variety in procedure, if well-planned and skillfully carried out, can do a great deal to aid all three factors, especially if members of the group come to realize that active participation on their part is important in achieving the goals and objectives.

However, before any technique can be expected to function adequately, adults must first be made to realize that they are never too old to learn. Most of them will not have had any formal instruction for many years and may be doubtful about their ability to assimilate what is being taught. Once they have gained assurance that learning is possible, co-operation in carrying out various experiences becomes much easier. Some of the techniques most widely used with adults are briefly discussed.

Group Discussion

One of the most popular procedures in conducting adult classes is that of group discussion, but like other techniques, to be successful, it must be carefully planned and skillfully directed. Advance preparation by the teacher is especially important. If the teacher and the group have co-operatively planned the topic for discussion, the teacher will need to analyze the material to discover what possible trends the discussion may take, what opinions and attitudes are likely to appear, and how much data on the subject are available. All possible solutions should be listed and a reference outline made.

The discussion itself should not be too formal. Freedom from restraint is necessary if active participation of the group is to be secured. The following points should be carefully evaluated by the teacher, since it is believed that their use produces an effective group discussion:

1. Place a clear statement of the problem or topic on the blackboard.
2. Break the topic into smaller elements.
3. List proposed solutions or conclusions as they are given with a view to narrowing them down for a final analysis.
4. Strive for a common agreement.
5. List possible solutions for troublesome situations.
6. Work for a conclusion that integrates the contributions of all.
7. When desirable, decide upon a course of action.
8. Decide upon follow-up procedures and the topic for the next meeting.

Demonstration

The demonstration technique is always popular with adult groups and may effectively accompany a lecture or a group discussion. The teacher may provide the whole demonstration or may ask individual members to suggest the next step and then have them demonstrate the procedure. When members of the class demonstrate the whole procedure, practice beforehand under the

teacher's guidance not only economizes class time but assures a better performance, which is vitally important for the morale of those participating. Sometimes slides or moving pictures may be shown to demonstrate certain procedures. All demonstrations should be informal, so that the group may feel free to ask questions at any time.

Panel Discussion

In a panel discussion a small group called "a panel" discusses a problem or a topic among themselves in the presence of a larger group. As a rule the panel, consisting of a chairman and four to eight members chosen by the teacher and a committee sit in a semicircle, facing the audience. The panel group should be ready thinkers, good speakers, and quick-witted, and should represent a variety of viewpoints. Although they need not be experts, they should be familiar with the topic to be discussed.

The chief purpose of a panel is to initiate co-operative thinking in the panel and through the panel to initiate it in the audience. The chairman explains the procedure to the audience and starts the discussion by raising pertinent questions for the panel to consider. All panel members are given an opportunity to participate. The chairman, however, directs the discussion, prevents it from rambling, and keeps up the interest. After the discussion has ended, the chairman acts as a co-ordinator — interpreting the data and summing up the main points. If time is available, the audience is given an opportunity to ask questions of different panel members. Panel discussions have proved to be popular for large groups of adults.

Laboratory

The laboratory technique is also fairly popular with adult groups and is very effective in teaching certain units in which manipulative skills and practical knowledge is best acquired under supervision. This is particularly true in sewing, cooking, and handicraft units where mistakes need correction at the time the skill is being learned. Under supervised instruction, adults acquire self-confidence more easily than they do when working alone and are

more likely to carry a new procedure into the home if they are assured of success in advance. Occasionally there are members of a class who hesitate about working with people who are more experienced and skilled in manipulative procedures than they are. This difficulty may be overcome by grouping people according to their skills and by setting up different activities for various levels of experience. The time for all laboratory programs, of course, should be carefully planned. Supplies and equipment should be made ready in advance, and time allowed at the end of the period for cleaning and putting away what has been used.

Forum

Originally the forum was designed for the study and solution of town problems. The idea was to give everyone a chance to express his views and then attempt to reach a common decision. This technique is especially popular in rural communities where both men and women meet to solve community problems. In homemaking education, forums have been used to give variety and are especially applicable for such subjects as supervising recreation, combating juvenile delinquency, making a town more attractive, and other subjects which pertain to community interests.

Symposium

The symposium technique is very much like the forum and is suitable for either large or small groups. As a rule three or more people who talk without interruption give an expert presentation of different phases of the subject. Questions from the group may follow. Popular examples of a symposium would be to have various members of a family discuss a mutual topic such as "Democracy in the Home"; or to have a group of social workers discuss "Dealing with Adolescents"; or to have a group of mothers talk about "Problems of the Preschool Child" or "The Care of Children for Working Mothers"; or to have businessmen discuss "Employment Opportunities for Boys and Girls" or "A Recreational Program for the Community."

Lecture Technique

Probably one of the most prevalent techniques for conducting adult classes, in general, is the use of a series of lectures. This procedure has certain advantages and some disadvantages especially in the field of homemaking. A lecture may provide information not already known and not easily available to the group. It may be economical, since adults, who have only a limited amount of time, do not always know what to read to the best advantage; and it may make possible explanation and interpretation of the data, thus providing a means of balancing different viewpoints. On the other hand, the lecture technique has very definite limitations because it does not require group participation or group interaction. While it is true that many adults come to class mentally and physically fatigued and that some of them are shy or indifferent about participating in the program, the fact remains that teaching becomes more effective when the learner takes an active part in the learning process. For this reason the exclusive use of the lecture technique is not recommended. It may be used as a part of the program followed by group activity such as experimentation in the laboratory or group discussion. However, success in the use of this technique depends upon being a good lecturer. The following suggestions may prove helpful to teachers who contemplate using it as a part of the lesson plan.

1. *Get off to a good start.* First impressions count. A well-groomed teacher will attract the attention of the group immediately. She can sustain this attention by using her voice clearly and fluently, with just enough enthusiasm to create an interest in the work on hand. Starting the lecture with a funny story or an amusing anecdote which has a personal appeal to the group will usually relieve any tension that may exist.

2. *Avoid interest-diverting factors.* If a teacher expects to maintain interest and arouse enthusiasm, there must be no distracting stimuli during a lecture. A flapping window shade, too bright a light, personal mannerisms such as "er-ing" or "ah-ing," pacing up and down, or the like distract attention from what is being said. At the same time the teacher must realize that the power of attention of her group may be limited. Many have come from a hard day's

work, which means that their span of attention may be short and will need to be stimulated from time to time by changes in procedure. This may be done by providing for a short recess, by passing around illustrative material, or by using any other technique which permits mental relaxation.

3. *Present ideas clearly.* Lecture material needs to be arranged systematically and to be presented clearly if auditory techniques are to be successful. Many people have satisfactory hearing but fail to retain what they have heard. It is well to write important points on the blackboard so that they may be seen as well as heard. It is also advisable not to present too many ideas in any one lesson.

4. *Close the lecture with a snap.* The end of a lecture is just as important as the beginning — perhaps even more so because a good final impression will make the group want to return for the next lecture. They will want to if they have been made to feel that they have gained something worth while from the lesson. A brief summary is, therefore, better than long-drawn-out conclusions. The judicious use of a bit of humor followed by a brief summation of the important points will usually leave the group in a pleasant state of mind.

GETTING THE PROGRAM STARTED

In teaching adults it is particularly important that the first lesson get off to a good start. If the teacher already has some information about the group's preferences, she will, first of all, select a time and place for the meetings which is convenient for the largest number. The teacher herself will arrive before the scheduled time and see that everything is in readiness. She may want to place posters or exhibits around the room to encourage interest in possible units. If she has planned a combination enrollment blank and questionnaire that will give clues to the background, the needs, and the interests of the enrollees, she will need to have the forms and an adequate supply of pencils ready for distribution. When the members arrive it is well to have a committee, arranged in advance, who will greet them and make them feel at ease. Informality should be the keynote.

Once the meeting is under way, the teacher will guide the group

in selecting the program. Preliminary plans will, of course, have been made in advance by the teacher, but should be kept flexible so that they can be easily adapted to suggestions offered by the group. Before the meeting has closed, the area to be studied will have been determined, goals or objectives will have been tentatively set up, and experiences, based on as many individual needs and interests as possible, suggested. The members should leave the first meeting with a clear-cut picture of what the course will include. Courtesy to the group makes it necessary for the teacher to remain sufficiently past the closing hour so that the group will not feel that she is in a hurry to have them leave.

ENDING THE PROGRAM

In many respects the last meeting of a class is as important as the first meeting. Special care should be taken to see that the following procedures are carried out:

Make a brief summary of the work covered in the course.

Obtain from all the members of the class an oral or written opinion as to what they have enjoyed most in the course, what material has been or will be the most valuable to them, what phase of homemaking education they desire to study in subsequent classes, and other pertinent data which will help the teacher to formulate a future program.

Distribute bulletins, pamphlets, or magazine articles which will tend to encourage further interest in and study of the subject of the course.

Issue some sort of a unit credit card or a certificate of achievement for the satisfactory completion of a certain number of hours.

Arrange an entertainment feature for a part of the last meeting.

Make all the members of the class feel that the course has been as stimulating to the teacher as it has been to them.

EVALUATING ADULT LEARNING

How does a teacher know whether or not a group has learned anything from a program in adult education? As previously stated,

learning implies some sort of a mental and physical change which causes a person to act in a different way than before. How can a teacher be certain that a group with long-established habits of poor home management has learned to set up a new system of housekeeping techniques? How can a teacher become aware of changes in attitude involving a more comprehensive understanding of various family relationships? "Yes," they say, "we enjoyed the course very much. We have learned a lot." But since achievement tests for adults are not practical and changes in attitude are difficult to evaluate, the problem of measuring adult learning is somewhat different from that of evaluating the achievement of high-school pupils. Although the procedure on the whole is less objective in nature for adults, the fundamental basis for evaluation is the same for both groups. Adults as well as adolescents need to see progress in terms of their goals and objectives. If the teacher has arranged the work of the course to meet the average level of ability of the group, it should not have been difficult for individual members to have achieved some measure of success, especially if members have been encouraged each lesson to look for changes which indicate success. Some of the techniques referred to in Chapter 5, "Evaluating Achievement," may be profitably employed. For instance, the use of score cards to evaluate canned products which they have prepared might interest adult groups studying foods.

The homemaking teacher may also see that learning has taken place if she observes changes in procedures during a home visit or if she sees evidences submitted by members of what they have learned. Sometimes a teacher may hear remarks made by individuals to others about the beneficial training which they have received in class. Even children's comments often reveal changes in attitude and procedure on the part of parents who have studied homemaking. A teacher may measure successful achievement in part by the interest the group has taken in the program. If the attendance has been high in spite of difficulties, if new members have been brought to class, and if active group participation has taken place, she may be fairly certain that her program is successful. If requests are made for other courses in homemaking, she may rightfully assume that community interest is growing, especially if different socio-economic levels are represented in the enrollment.

All these ways of evaluating a successful homemaking program may only lead to a subjective interpretation, but since changes in attitude and the formation of new habits come about slowly, progress will be shown by slow, steady growth toward better housekeeping techniques and more wholesome home and community relationships rather than by strictly objective criteria.

EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAMS

In 1938, with the assistance of the United States Office of Education, four programs in family life were launched in Toledo, Ohio; Wichita, Kansas; Obion County, Tennessee; and Box Elder County, Utah.[5] Each functioned independently except that a central planning group served as a clearing house for the co-ordination of activities. The work included a program for all community groups at all age levels to improve personal relationships and arts of homemaking. Among other things, parents have been taught to interpret the war to their children; boys and girls in high school studying child development have received training in the care of preschool children; child-care centers for working mothers have been set up; and courses in nutrition with emphasis on gardening, canning, storage, and drying have been offered to parents and other members of a community. One program included an institute in family relations, carried out by sixty-eight organizations, and a preschool council which met once a week for seven weeks. For professional workers there was also a closed workshop in premarriage education. Other programs included planning by parents and children for recreational activities and a spring cleanup campaign in which all members of the family participated. From all reports an enthusiastic response to all these programs has been given by adults in the four communities just mentioned.

THE FUTURE

At the present time over a million adults are participating in homemaking education. Each year the number increases. In spite of the effects of the war, there has been a constant demand for all

[5] Muriel W. Brown, "Community Action to Meet Family Needs," *Journal of Home Economics*, September, 1942.

types of instruction. Furthermore, even before the end of the war, farsighted individuals, knowing that new and complex problems would develop as a result of disturbed economic and social conditions, were planning suitable training programs for the period after the war.[6] The need for such programs is great. Countless adults and many young people face drastic changes in their homes and in the communities in which they live. Guidance in making adjustments to new vocational conditions and in solving personal problems related to health, recreation, and social living are vitally necessary. Needless to say, the task is tremendous.

For teachers in homemaking education this simply means carrying out the same type of work that has already been begun — but on a much greater scale. Although additional equipment, a larger financial budget, and more highly trained personnel will be needed, the general goals will be the same. The task of planning and administering such a program is a challenge to all homemaking teachers who want to make adult education function as never before.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Illustrate how the content and goals of a course at a particular age level may be similar for boys and girls. Show how experiences may vary for the two groups.
2. What are some evidences of the need for programs for adults and out-of-school youth?
3. What is the advantage, if any, of group thinking over individual thinking?
4. Nansing is a residential and industrial town with 5000 inhabitants, many of whom are college-trained. The people as a whole are progressive and very active in social groups. There is some interest in community affairs.
   (*a*) How would you proceed in planning for an adult program?
   (*b*) In working up a publicity campaign, suggest some catchy names for various units.
   (*c*) Formulate a suitable questionnaire which can be circulated at the woman's club and at church organizations in order to

[6] *Post-War Training and Adjustment* (New York: Institute of Adult Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942).

obtain information about the needs and interests of the community.

5. What is the teacher's responsibility in creating class discussion?
6. List points which a homemaking teacher should consider in deciding whether or not to teach adult classes even though there is a demand in the community for such classes. What are some ways in which a homemaking teacher may co-operate with an adult program even though she does not do the actual teaching?
7. Suggest possible ways in which high-school homemaking students may contribute to an adult class. Consider possible advantages for both groups.

17

Interpreting Homemaking Education to Others

Not only is there an art in knowing a thing, but also a certain art in interpreting this knowledge to others.

CICERO

In American education there has always been a close relationship between educators and the public whom they serve. Since schools exist for the welfare of the people and are dependent upon them for financial and moral support, it is essential that the public be kept informed of the aims, the needs, and the existing conditions in the schools. This constant need for interpreting educational values to the public is vitally important, since schools can be improved and developed only to the extent to which the general public understands educational goals and objectives.

Responsibility for Interpreting Education

Although the members of the board of education are legally responsible for keeping the public informed about the conditions and needs of the school, they are usually so occupied in providing buildings and equipment, determining the budget, formulating educational policies, hiring teachers, and setting up general standards of procedure that little time is available for a systematic program of interpretation. It is necessary, therefore, that everyone in the school system, especially the teachers and the pupils, recognize and

accept the responsibility of helping the board interpret school procedures.

Interpreting to Parents

The percentage of parents who really comprehend the aims and principles of education and who can evaluate what the schools provide, is pitifully small. The majority of parents are either indifferent to the kind of education which their children receive or believe in letting the school administration take complete responsibility for formulating and carrying out their own program. All parents, however, tend to judge a school by what it actually does or does not do for their children. This is particularly true with respect to homemaking education, for most parents are better able to judge what their children have gained in homemaking than in other school subjects with which they are less familiar. For instance, it is obvious to them that the ability to plan, prepare, and serve a whole meal and to be a capable hostess at the same time has more potential value to the pupil and the family than learning isolated skills which are only occasionally used. Interviews with high-school girls indicate that they are influenced to a great extent by their parents in deciding whether or not to take courses in homemaking. For this reason, if for no other, teachers should try to give parents a better understanding of the goals and objectives of homemaking. Assuming that these goals are based on the needs and interests of the pupils, teachers should also realize that parents are perhaps better able to define these needs and interests than the teachers or even the pupils themselves. (See Chapter 3, "Setting up Goals.") Parents should, therefore, be encouraged to offer suggestions on how the department can best contribute toward making home living a more satisfactory experience. Once a mutual understanding has been established between the school and the home, a deeper realization of what homemaking education really means will tend to develop in community consciousness. Until this mutual understanding develops, however, special efforts will need to be made to bring homemaking education before the public.

In general there are several ways of interpreting homemaking to a community: (1) through a program of adult education in which

parents become direct partners in the work of the school; (2) through publicity; and (3) through related class activities.

Organized Parent Groups

In addition to adult education programs which are discussed in Chapter 16, organized parent groups such as parent-teacher associations, parent councils, homeroom councils, and others offer effective means of securing intelligent co-operation between the school and the parents. Sometimes these organized groups are simply a means of raising nonpublic funds to supplement a school's limited resources for books, pictures, and special equipment, but in many of the more progressive communities regular programs for parent education are bringing the home and the school into closer relationship. In some schools special provision is made in the school building for social rooms for parents, for library facilities for adults, for teacher-parent conferences, and for direct observation of the school program. Not infrequently the homemaking department is used as a social center by adult groups.

While membership in an organized parent group is open to all parents, it is generally the enlightened members of a community who join, while the ones who really need the benefits of such an organization are not reached. This is particularly true in school communities where various socio-economic levels are represented. Lack of time, indifference, unsuitable clothes, timidity, and other factors prevent many parents in the lower economic levels from joining these organized groups. Since special membership campaigns may fail to influence many of these people, other means must be found to interpret school procedures to them.

Organized groups, however, offer teachers and pupils opportunities to show parents what homemaking education means. Arrangements can be made for a meeting at which certain pupils act as hostesses in showing parents the facilities of the department while others plan, prepare, and serve appropriate refreshments. Several pupils may present short talks on subjects related to homemaking training, or model suitable clothes for different occasions, or give skits and plays featuring various phases of homemaking work.

Other programs sponsored by the homemaking department may include outside speakers, such as doctors, nurses, and social workers, who may stress special aspects of their work in relation to homemaking training. All such programs can be planned by the teacher and her pupils as regular class experiences and evaluated not only in terms of pupil achievement but in terms of parent and community reactions as well.

Publicity

Homemaking education as it is carried out in the public schools can also be interpreted to the public through publicity measures, but just what phases of the work should be publicized and how they should be treated depend upon the teacher's judgment and upon the pupils' realization that their goals and experiences can be interesting and helpful to others outside the school environment. With careful planning most aspects of homemaking can be presented in such a way as to interest not only the homemaker but all members of the family as well. Although no hard and fast rules can be given, a few ways of publicizing homemaking education may be suggested.

NEWSPAPER OR MAGAZINE ARTICLES

Newspapers and magazines are excellent mediums through which large numbers of people may be informed about homemaking training. If the school has a school newspaper or magazine, the teacher may co-operate with the department which sponsors these activities and arrange to have pupils who are taking work in homemaking contribute articles about this field. The same procedure may be followed for commercial newspapers and magazines. The teacher also should do some writing along with the students for professional homemaking publications, for magazines (especially the smaller ones) that feature articles in home and family living, or for newspapers. Student criticism of these articles will benefit both the teacher and the pupils. Sometimes a teacher or pupil may be interviewed by newspaper reporters who write the articles themselves. This type of procedure is valuable since it teaches students to think and speak carefully and to emphasize only those points which they wish publicized.

Newspaper or magazine copy requires a somewhat different technique than ordinary school compositions or reports. For this reason in preparing articles for publication, it is well to check on the following questions:

Is the Material Timely?

Although homemaking problems are generally suitable for year-round discussion, certain events such as a housing project, a children's clinic, Education Week, spring cleaning, fall canning, summer gardening, or winter clothing problems create a timely interest that is worth cultivating. Unexpected events such as an epidemic, a flood, or a tornado may offer possibilities for special menus or for informative data concerning home nursing. It is well to be constantly on the alert to community events which may be tied up with homemaking education.

Is It Adapted to the Correct Interest Level?

Articles that appeal to city people do not always hold the same degree of interest for rural communities or vice versa. Some newspapers have special rural editions which feature articles of general interest to the rural population; nearly all newspapers and magazines have certain pages for women readers; and some have a section for grade or high-school pupils. It is always well to know for which group one is writing, although all material should be simple and direct.

Are the Essential Questions Answered?

The questions are Who? When? Where? Why? How?

Has It Personal Appeal?

Statistics and data that are strictly scientific are often difficult for people to interpret and, therefore, less interesting to the general public. Material in which names can be used has more of a general appeal.

Is the Content Accurate in Every Detail?

Pupils who submit material should check with the teacher to be certain that all the facts are truly represented. Misinformation is worse than no information.

Is the Article Neatly Typed?

Business concerns do not have time to read longhand articles and insist on typewritten, double-spaced copy, which is much easier to edit.

Does It Start "With a Bang"?

Many people will not bother to read an article unless the first sentence interests them. Particular care should be taken to word the first sentence so that it will create an interest for what is to follow.

Does the First Paragraph Contain the Most Important Information?

Some people do not read an article all the way through. Therefore, instead of putting the most important data toward the end of the article as one might do in leading up to a climax, the writer must weave the essential points into the first paragraph.

Is the Article Being Submitted on Time?

Newspaper and magazine copy has to be in at a specified time. If copy is late, it may be out of date by the next issue and may have to be discarded.

EXHIBITS

Newspaper and magazine publicity is only one avenue through which the public is reached. Exhibits not only have a universal appeal but, when set up in terms of classroom goals and experiences, not only arouse public interest in homemaking education but also contribute toward pupil growth. Most exhibits can be carried out as a part of the regular classroom work, although they may be set up in various places, such as in a school display case, at a school or community fair, in a downtown window or clubroom, at a tea for parents, or at a parent-teacher meeting.

In setting up an exhibit several factors need to be taken into consideration. In the first place an exhibit should tell a simple story about some phase of homemaking education. One idea rather than several should predominate. The whole effect, however, should catch the eye at once and arouse and stimulate further interest. All

pieces should be carefully labeled and neatly arranged. Ample space and optimum lighting effects are also important factors to be considered. Crowding the pieces into a poorly lighted corner or a dark part of the room makes the exhibit practically worthless as a publicity measure. Last but not least, professional attention should be given to small details such as, for instance, pinning back a belt on a dress as is done in the better shops or having the individual service accurate in every respect for a food display. Exhibits which pertain to classes in foods and clothing are, of course, the easiest to set up. Home management, home nursing, child development, and consumer buying also offer tangible possibilities; but the portrayal of family relationships is usually very difficult because of the many intangible features involved. Possible exhibits for various areas include the following:

Applied Science

Exhibit an illustration of the lye test which shows how to distinguish all wool material from all cotton.

Display steps showing how to make baking powder at home in an emergency.

Display steps showing how to change a sweet milk biscuit recipe to one using sour milk.

Have a pupil demonstrate how to repair an electrical device, for example, how to fix a short circuit in an ironing cord.

Display practical home devices for getting adequate moisture in the air.

Home Furnishings

Exhibit samples of large-figured wallpaper with the title: "Do these designs seem to crowd toward you or do they become a part of the background?"

Display an old cushion with a bulging spring. Suggested title: "Would you like to make your cushions look like new?"

Exhibit windows properly and improperly curtained.

Exhibit inexpensive household articles made of flour, sugar, salt, or feed sacks: breakfast or luncheon cloths; curtains and draperies; dish, face, and hand towels; napkins and dresser scarfs; and so forth.

Home Management

Display pictures of cupboards showing good arrangements.

Have a well-arranged laundry with provisions made for all phases of laundering, with the title: "Turn your junk room into a laundry."

Make large clock faces out of paper. Show on one face how a homemaker spends her time. On the other show how a housekeeper spends her time. Suggested title: "Are you a housekeeper or a homemaker?"

Display a table well arranged with new cooking utensils and useful gadgets. Use this little sign: "Do you want to increase your kitchen vocabulary?"

Display bulletins on the making of closets, and exhibit closet equipment. Suggested title: "Proper storage for clothes prolongs their life and makes you a better-dressed person."

Home Care of the Sick

Display a support for a bedridden patient, using a strap or rope suspended from a hook in the ceiling over the bed.

Exhibit a pressure ring made from a cotton stocking or an inner tube stuffed with soft materials.

Display a graduated measuring device made from a fruit jar or glass container on which has been pasted adhesive tape marked off to show ounces. Varnish for permanence.

Make drinking tubes from stick macaroni, a straw, or bent glass tubing.

Display a wheel chair made by attaching castors to an armchair and by converting a broom stick into a foot support.

Display diets for the sick using food models.

Display correctly labeled bottles for a medicine cabinet.

Child Development

Display a corner of a room fixed up as a child's playroom. Orange crates or other discarded fruit boxes may be worked into furniture. Pictures should be well selected, framed without glass, and hung low enough for the children to enjoy.

Exhibit articles which include practical equipment to care for a baby.

Exhibit self-help clothes for children.

Display children's clothes made from those of adults.

Display children's toys which can be made at home.

Consumer Buying

Display a collection of seals of approval awarded by private or government agencies. Show what guarantee is behind each seal.

Arrange an exhibit of good and poor advertising, accompanied by short statements telling why the advertising is or is not good form from the consumer's point of view.

Exhibit bottles and containers to show how some are made to deceive customers as to the amount they will hold.

Family Relations

Display a number of homemade games.

Prepare an exhibit of books suited to the entire family.

Show pictures illustrating the divisions of work among family members. Example: a father and son building an outdoor fireplace.

A family relationship play may be staged for a certain time during the day of the exhibit.

Personal Improvement

Display a group of deodorants and mouthwashes including homemade ones.

Exhibit a poster showing the correct way to brush teeth.

Display "before" and "after" pictures showing improvement in personal appearance.

Exhibit pictures of good and poor standing, walking, and sitting posture.

POSTERS

Posters are often featured as part of an exhibit, or they may be

the whole exhibit itself. They usually either consist of commercial materials collected by the pupils or are made entirely by the pupils. Sometimes pupils may correlate their work in homemaking with that in the art department and arrange to produce one or more posters representing some phase of homemaking education. High standards of workmanship result with the benefit of art instruction. Without this instruction pupils will need to see that various principles in the art of poster-making are carried out. For example, one part of the design must be dominant with the other parts subordinate, although the whole poster should produce a unified effect. The length and width of the design should be in satisfactory proportion with good contrasts of light and dark shades or neutral and vivid colors. Poster-making, however, is to be recommended only when posters are considered the best medium of putting over an idea to a particular group.

Related Class Activities

There are various school activities closely related to the work of homemaking in which many of the pupils will want to participate and which offer excellent mediums through which the public can be informed about what homemaking education is doing. Foremost among these activities is the school lunch, which often functions under the guidance and supervision of the homemaking department. Since this activity is one in which co-operative procedures are necessary to insure success, suggestions are given whereby teachers and pupils may work out a program in terms of classroom goals and experiences not only for their own benefit but for the good of the whole school and even the community.

THE HOT LUNCH

Correlating It with the School Program

The school lunch program may function as a separate feature of the homemaking department, or it may include teachers and pupils from the entire school. In either case the homemaking teacher and her pupils will probably have some responsibility for setting up an adequate program. Whatever type of program is planned should be

based on the concept that only those duties and responsibilities which possess educative value for the pupils should be employed. A number of school boards employ one or more cooks who work under the general supervision of the homemaking teacher. A few of the larger schools employ a cafeteria manager who assumes the major responsibility for the hot lunch program.

General Principles

Provisions should be made for a kitchen or a room separate from the homemaking laboratory where food for the lunch can be prepared. This is essential so that homemaking classes may continue without interruption. The lunchroom itself should operate under safe and sanitary conditions and should be as attractive as possible. A fresh coat of paint, colorful curtains, suitable lighting and heating, and attractive posters are possible suggestions. Community resources should be utilized whenever feasible. School and community gardens or individual gardeners can provide some of the produce. Flowers for the tables may also come from community sources.

The extent of the menu, especially the serving of hot dishes, will depend somewhat upon economic conditions and upon whether the pupils or hired personnel do the actual cooking. When students do the cooking, it may be practical to serve only one hot dish and milk to supplement foods brought from home. In other instances a larger variety of foods may be advisable. Needless to say, whatever is served should meet good nutrition standards.

Menus should be prepared a week in advance and all supplies ordered ahead of time. Management procedures, such as lunchroom organization, kitchen work, buying, accounting, and publicity, will need to be arranged by the teacher and pupils. If the work is to be done by the pupils, duties and responsibilities should be rotated. The following charts indicate how a lunchroom program may be set up for the whole school.[1] A detailed study of this plan is recommended.

[1] Prepared by a committee of graduate students with the guidance of Merle D. Byers, Michigan State College, summer, 1943.

How Groups Can Help Carry Out School Lunch Program

Fifth and Sixth Grades	Seventh and Eighth Grades	High-School Boys
1. Get tables ready. Napkins Salt and pepper Centerpieces Oil cloth or place mats 2. Help small children figure the food which they can get with the money they have. 3. Help small children carry food to the lunchroom. 4. Assist children at the table to relieve the teacher. 5. Clear tables and wipe them. 6. Stack dishes. 7. Dry dishes and silver, if needed.	1. Do any of the work indicated for fifth and sixth grades. 2. Help with simple preparation. 3. Get dishes out ready for serving. 4. Help get counter set up. 5. Help serve — under supervision. 6. Operate commercial dishwasher, if there is one.	1. Bring foods from the grocery. 2. Help with food preparation. 3. Set up tables and chairs. 4. Help with serving. 5. Take care of money or tickets. 6. Carry heavy trays and used dishes. 7. Help with dishwashing. 8. Put away tables and chairs. 9. Sweep floors and mop.

How Homemaking Students Can Help Carry Out School Lunch Program

I Level	II Level	III Level
1. Plan menus for two weeks. 2. Assist in food preparation. 3. Serve in cafeteria. 4. Keep lunchroom and cafeteria counter attractive. 5. Help children with choice of food. 6. Help with dishwashing and cleaning up.	Work in small groups to take turns 1. planning menus 2. marketing for food 3. taking care of food when delivered 4. preparing main dishes 5. serving 6. acting as hostesses at table 7. training grade school help 8. helping take tickets 9. figuring costs 10. planning use of leftovers in attractive dishes 11. taking care of food from counter 12. arranging the food in the refrigerator.	1. Organize cafeteria to provide for (*a*) storage of supplies (*b*) preparation of food (*c*) serving of food (*d*) care of equipment 2. Schedule help, under one general manager, to provide for rotation of duties. 3. Plan for and carry out vocational experience in quantity cookery. 4. Figure out quantity recipes.

Promotional Activities Which Could be Carried Out in School and Community

Fifth and Sixth Grades

1. Have contests on health. Examples:
   (*a*) Which grade drinks the most milk?
   (*b*) Which grade has the most underweight pupils?
2. Have health improvement programs for grade school assemblies or for their own grades — plays, skits, poems, etc.
3. Help with community gardens.

Seventh and Eighth Grades

1. Make posters.
2. Make exhibit of a good lunch — use food model cards.
3. Give programs in assembly.
4. Help with community garden.

High-School Boys

1. Help paint walls of lunchroom and arrange lighting.
2. Keep furniture painted and in repair.
3. Cover or paint tops of tables.
4. Talk to Rotary Club to increase interest in a community garden and the school lunch program.

Activities Which Homemaking Students Could Carry Out to Help Promote the School Lunch

I Level

1. Make posters, such as "Choosing a Good Lunch."
2. Collect data on food habits and weights of grade children to serve as a basis for further study.
3. Play Vita-min-go game at table, after eating, to check food habits.
4. Plan how to figure amount of food wasted in the cafeteria and to interpret these results to the school.

II Level

1. Plan assembly and radio programs, such as a "Manners Court" or a panel discussion on "Manners in the Cafeteria."
2. Work out a chart that would show comparison of the grades in good food habits.
3. Give skits in grade school on food habits, etiquette, etc.
4. Give speeches in other classes to interest students in choosing a good lunch.
5. Make curtains.

III Level

1. Establish an advisory council consisting of the superintendent or principal and representatives of the grades, the high school, the homemaking department, the agricultural department, and the parents.
2. Carry out time- and energy-saving studies to increase efficiency.
3. Conduct studies on such questions as "How many drink milk?" "How many eat vegetables?" Present the findings to the school.
4. Work out ways of evaluating the school lunch program.

How Other Departments Can Help

The principal may co-operate by scheduling the lunch program so that pupils may participate in the work; may serve as host or hostess at the beginning of the program; may promote a good attitude

about the food served; and may help to solicit the food if that is necessary.

The agriculture teacher may help boys to set up and carry out a plan for soliciting food from townspeople and farmers and also help them to plan a community garden.

The art teacher may assist pupils in preparing menu cards and posters to be used in stores to create interest in the school lunch program.

The commercial teacher may assist pupils in typing menus, in printing tickets, and in working out a bookkeeping system for the lunchroom accounts.

The English teacher may help pupils to write articles on nutrition for the school paper, to write skits and plays to promote the lunch program, and to write letters to take home giving the menus for the week and suggesting foods for the lunchbox.

The physical education teacher may emphasize the need for good food habits.

The shop teacher may help the pupils to sharpen knives; to repair equipment; and to make napkin holders, holders for cards which state prices, containers for various articles, and — if necessary — tables.

The speech teacher may have the pupils use the cafeteria patrons as an audience for extemporaneous and after-dinner speeches.

BANQUETS

Under certain conditions, banquets are a means of bringing homemaking education before the public. A carefully planned, well-served banquet reflects great credit on a homemaking department and at the same time affords excellent learning experiences for the pupils especially when carried out as a part of the regular classroom work. However, the procedure of successfully planning and executing all the details of a banquet calls for a high degree of intelligence and leadership. In many schools this duty will undoubtedly rest on the homemaking teacher, but if a bright pupil who has demonstrated technical ability and qualities of leadership can be given the chairmanship with a major share of the responsibility, a banquet may become an invaluable learning experience for her.

For other pupils banquet experience means subchairmanships for a few students and the preparation and serving of the meal for the majority. Unless this type of experience is really needed, too many banquets should not be undertaken. Sometimes, however, if several meals, such as a series of luncheons to a civic club, are to be served, a plan may be worked out by means of which pupils receive pay for their work outside school. At other times such a project may be carried out as a way of making money for something special which the class wants.

HOMEMAKING CLUBS

Homemaking clubs are primarily planned to help pupils learn to work co-operatively among themselves and to develop independent activities of their own with as little teacher supervision as possible. These clubs represent an attempt to cater informally to pupils' personal interests, sometimes in terms of hobbies or as a continuation of classroom experiences. The responsibility of setting up and carrying out the program rests on the members themselves, who are encouraged to make the meetings interesting and amusing yet educational at the same time. Although meetings are generally scheduled after school, many clubs are given regular school periods in which to carry out some of their experiences. Sometimes membership is not limited to pupils taking courses in homemaking but may include boys as well as any girls who are interested in joining. The representation of both groups makes it possible to set up informal situations which lead to a more adequate social development than regular classroom contacts provide.

Some of these homemaking clubs are local organizations, while others are affiliated with the American Home Economics Association through the medium of a state organization which generally holds periodic district and state meetings. Attendance at these meetings not only gives pupils a broader sense of values through travel experience and contacts with other people but, when publicized through the local newspaper, may serve as a means of bringing homemaking education before the community. However, all clubs, whether local or national, have opportunities for keeping the public informed about what homemaking really means. Pupils

may give plays, pageants, or style shows before civic and church groups, may sponsor teas and suppers for parents; may plan special parties for needy children; or may distribute Thanksgiving and Christmas baskets in the name of the club. They may even correspond with clubs in other states or in foreign countries and thereby acquire interesting information.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Discuss with experienced homemaking teachers the techniques found most effective in interpreting homemaking education to parents. Report the results to the class.
2. Collect several newspaper or magazine articles prepared by homemaking students and evaluate each. Offer suggestions for possible improvements.
3. What factors about newspaper publicity should the homemaking teacher who wishes to avoid jealousy and friction with other teachers keep in mind?
4. Discuss the teacher's responsibility for contributions to professional homemaking publications.
5. As a class, separate into small groups and have each group plan an exhibit for a specific purpose.
6. Using a school situation with which the class is familiar, evaluate each suggestion on the charts for correlating the hot lunch with the school program. (See pages 371–372.) Offer additional suggestions for ways of correlating.
7. What recommendations might be of value to a new homemaking teacher in a community which had previously formed the habit of exploiting the homemaking department for banquet serving?
8. List the factors which should be considered in determining whether or not a homemaking department should sponsor a homemaking club.
9. Become familiar with and evaluate the program of a homemaking club in terms of its contribution to the pupils, to the department, and to the school and community. Discuss suggestions for improvement.

18

Teacher Growth and Development

It is . . . the knowledge of one's self to know what one knows and what one does not know. SOCRATES

OUR AMERICAN SCHOOL SYSTEM has long been vitally interested in the development of its pupils, but only within comparatively recent times has it been concerned with the development of its teachers as well. The basic requirements for the average teacher were professional knowledge, good health, and sound character. Little or no attention was paid to skill in teaching or to the acquisition of scientific methods and techniques which might lead to a more adequate development of the teacher and bring about a healthier and happier classroom environment. At the present time, however, educators are aware that pupil progress is synonymous with teacher progress, and they realize that unless the teacher is constantly on the alert to changing conditions and to the need of self-growth, she will fail to achieve maximum efficiency in the classroom. It has already been demonstrated how students can choose definite goals and objectives and how, in achieving these goals, they develop traits of character which enable them to meet more successfully the chaotic conditions of the present day. The teacher also can set up definite goals leading to success in teaching and thus exert a greater influence for good not only in the classroom and in the community but in her own life as well.

The teacher's goals may well be based on what successful teachers in the field of homemaking are doing. Understanding the personal difficulties and the classroom problems of these teachers and knowing what has proved most helpful to them will be of great benefit to

teachers who are working toward professional growth and personal development.

One of the authors recently made an extensive study which attempted to determine the characteristic differences in the teaching performance of superior homemaking teachers and those less successful.[1] This study showed very clearly that superior teachers excelled in certain areas of professional and personal living. Based on a detailed analysis of these areas, this chapter will attempt to indicate how homemaking teachers may work toward self-improvement.

Goals Leading to Success in Teaching

In addition to the fundamental qualifications previously mentioned which are considered as prerequisites for all teachers, there are various other aspects of teaching which tend to center around relationships between the teacher and her pupils and between the teacher and the community in which she lives. The following areas are those in which successful teachers have shown high attainment: (1) Developing a knowledge of classroom techniques which lead to a better understanding of pupil development; (2) creating a homelike atmosphere; (3) sharing homemaking with the rest of the school; (4) building up community co-operation; (5) integrating beliefs about education; (6) developing broad and rich interests.

A teacher who wishes to be successful takes stock of her assets and liabilities and constantly asks herself, "In what areas do I need to develop to attain the highest proficiency?" It is suggested that the teacher use the six areas listed above as her goals in teaching and that she evaluate her progress in terms of these goals. Each area is discussed in detail, and after each discussion key questions are formulated which the teacher can use to evaluate her relative standing.[2]

[1] Hazel M. Hatcher, *Characteristic Differences Among Homemaking Teachers of Varying Proficiency* (Bulletin 288; Lansing, Michigan: The State Board of Control for Vocational Education, 1944).

[2] Questions developed by Amy Jean Holmblade, Whitehall, Michigan, and Leone Willison, Lake View, Michigan.

IMPROVING CLASSROOM TECHNIQUES

Some teachers believe that a few courses in pedagogy plus a certain amount of experience makes them successful teachers; but this is not usually true. The teacher's knowledge of the principles of learning must be accompanied by a definite effort to measure success not by her own industry and efficiency but rather by what the pupils themselves achieve. And what they achieve depends very largely on whether or not the teacher employs techniques which produce efficient learning. Modern classroom procedures in teaching homemaking indicate that co-operative planning which goes hand in hand with a better understanding of pupils is significant in attaining successful classroom achievement. Since these factors have already been discussed in detail, only a brief summary will be given.

Co-operative Planning

The successful teacher is able to work co-operatively with pupils in planning the work to be done, in determining how this work will be accomplished, and in evaluating achievement. With the assistance of the pupils, she tries to set up goals based on their needs, interests, and abilities and to plan a variety of experiences directly related to these goals. She makes evaluating achievement a co-operative procedure which gives pupils frequent opportunities to check their own progress in terms of the goals.

Self-Checking Questions

1. Do I understand co-operative planning well enough so that pupils and I together set up their homemaking goals?
2. Can I guide the pupils to help plan experiences which will lead toward their goals?
3. Can I guide pupils in evaluating progress toward their goals?

Understanding the Pupils

A successful teacher attempts to become acquainted with her pupils. For a homemaking teacher this means not only understanding the physical, emotional, and social development of young people but also recognizing and evaluating the many environ-

mental forces which exert a profound influence on adolescent behavior. Individual reactions to all these factors give rise to many personal problems which need to be resolved before an adequate adjustment to the school and community environment can be made. The successful homemaking teacher must guide and assist pupils in meeting and adjusting to the many conflicts which confront them. The teacher's knowledge and understanding of adolescent problems will not necessarily, however, lead pupils to confide in her. She can inspire pupil confidence in her ability to give guidance only by making them feel that she is genuinely interested in them and in their problems.

Self-Checking Questions

4. Am I able to help pupils become aware of their problems?
5. Do pupils have enough confidence in me to ask my help in meeting some of their problems?
6. Am I able to give them guidance which helps them with their problems?

CREATING A HOMELIKE ATMOSPHERE

Successful homemaking teachers are vitally interested in creating in the department a more informal, homelike atmosphere, with attractive furnishings and efficient equipment which not only will stimulate interest on the part of pupils in the offerings of homemaking education, but also will make the department a place in which pupils will want to live and work. This is done co-operatively by teachers and pupils by developing higher standards of cleanliness and neatness, by rearranging the furniture and equipment so that it is more convenient for class use, and by using colorful arrangements which produce a magical effect in many a classroom which would otherwise be drab and uninteresting. Improvements also include modifying the school environment as well as the department itself, such as keeping attractive and interesting exhibits in the exhibit case in the hall, improving the appearance of the girls' rest room, and by increasing the efficiency of the First-Aid room.

Self-Checking Questions

7. Do I guide pupils in improving the homemaking department through the arrangement of furniture, equipment, and supplies, through higher standards of cleanliness, and through creating a more attractive, homelike atmosphere?
8. Do my plans include improving the school environment?

SHARING HOMEMAKING WITH THE REST OF THE SCHOOL

Appreciation of home and family living can be greatly strengthened by sharing the facilities of the department with the rest of the school. Although the extent and kinds of co-operative effort undertaken will necessarily be based on the educational needs of each individual school, there are extensive possibilities for sharing which will apply in general to most schools. Among the ways of co-operating with different departments are the following:

Department	*Example of Co-operation* [3]
English	Jointly preparing articles on homemaking for the school magazine or the local newspaper
Social science	Making a simple home survey of family leisure activities at home
Science	Making and testing cleaning agents for home sanitation
Language	Planning the costume dinner with the Spanish class
Music	Assisting with costumes for an operetta
Art	Jointly selecting and hanging suitable pictures for different groups
Commercial	Keeping records and accounts for school lunches
Industrial arts	Learning about the care and upkeep of home equipment
Agriculture	Planning a nutritionally adequate school garden

[3] Adapted from *Teacher Growth in Homemaking Education* (Bulletin 2105; Lansing, Michigan: The State Board of Control for Vocational Education, 1943), p. 14.

Department	*Example of Co-operation*
Assemblies	Giving a skit on vocations related to homemaking
Clubs	Training in the arrangement and care of the social room of the school
Health	Assisting nurse in the health check-up of children
Lunch	Making a "good lunch" campaign throughout the school
Parent-Teacher Association	Giving a panel discussion on "Hobbies for the Enrichment of Family Life"
Adult Homemaking	Preparing illustrative materials for the mothers' class
Garments for the Needy	Mending contributions

All these examples deserve careful consideration.

However, successful teachers realize that to carry out the above suggestions they must develop friendly co-operation with each of these groups. This means that every homemaking teacher needs to establish good relations with her associates. In doing so she must take into consideration the individual differences of her fellow associates. Every teaching staff represents all types of personalities. Many of these people keep abreast of the times; others do not. Among any group of teachers are some who have been adequately prepared and who as a result have become efficient, well-trained individuals. Then there are others who have not done anything to improve themselves but who seem satisfied to remain at a low level of efficiency. Still others may be old in service, may have had little or no professional training, and may be incapable of changing from conventional methods of teaching to more modern techniques. All of this means that the successful teacher makes allowances for these differences and develops a firm belief that most people have ability to do certain things well. A youthful teacher should realize that an older teacher possesses a wealth of experience and that association with her will prove invaluable in many ways. Likewise an older teacher can gain much by being tolerant toward the

younger group whose interest and eagerness for new procedures in education can provide a constant source of stimulation and inspiration. If tolerance is maintained and prejudice avoided on both sides, there will be a gradual understanding of just what can be expected from different personalities. It is only by comparing the experiences of others with one's own and recognizing individual differences that a common basis of understanding with co-workers can be reached.

Self-Checking Questions

9. Am I acquainted with the total program of the school and the opportunities for interdepartment co-operation?
10. Do I ask others in the school to help in developing a better homemaking program?
11. Does the homemaking department co-operate with other departments in developing their programs and in building a better school program?

BUILDING UP COMMUNITY CO-OPERATION

The first step toward building community co-operation is to know the community in which one teaches. This involves a two-fold approach: (1) Analyzing the available resources of the community so that the school program may be based in part on the needs and interests of the people (this idea has already been discussed in Chapter 11); (2) evaluating the customs and traditions of the community so that the homemaking teacher may be guided by these factors in making an adequate adjustment to her surroundings. Successful homemaking teachers have discovered that the best way to fit into a community is to follow certain procedures which lead to co-operation between the teacher and the community in which she lives.

Co-operate with Socially Approved Behavior

The teacher should develop a willingness to participate in school and out in forms of behavior that are within the limits of social approval. The American people look upon the schools as public institutions and consider its teachers as members of the community

whose activities are not limited to the classroom. They expect that the teacher will conform to the customs of the community, whatever they are. Communities differ, of course, in their standards of social approval. As a rule the larger the community, the more flexible are the rules to which individual members are expected to conform. Smaller communities are more rigid about what they consider desirable conduct.

It seems obvious that to be really successful, a teacher must get along well in the community where she teaches. There are various ways in which this may be accomplished without losing one's personality, simple ways that call merely for tact and an understanding of human nature.

Do not complain about limitations in the town. Most towns, no matter how small, have a great deal of civic pride, and although they may lack adequate shopping or recreational facilities and other accommodations which larger towns possess, they dislike to hear complaints about their limitations. A teacher needs to make the people feel that she is proud of the community in which she teaches.

Do not date high-school boys. Nothing causes quite so much criticism in a community as the teacher who dates a boy student. Aside from any reason which the community may have for this attitude, the difference in training and experience between a teacher and a high-school student is usually too great to allow for a development of common interests. Either the teacher lowers her ideals to fit those of the student, or the student is required to assume an adult attitude which his immature experience does not warrant. Such companionship for the most part is not wholesome for either person and should be avoided.

Do not have callers till wee hours of the morning. This is particularly important for the teacher who lives in a small town where people are accustomed to retire early and where one or two o'clock in the morning is not an accepted hour for entertaining callers. If the teacher keeps late hours, her conduct is subject to misinterpretation regardless of how innocent she may be. It is better to avoid any action which will lead to misunderstandings.

Choose friends carefully and slowly. No one would deny the teacher a right to choose her own friends, but in every community there

are people who feel that the teacher as a civil servant should be shared regardless of her personal preferences. In small communities where everyone is known and where personal feelings are easily hurt, the teacher should not limit her acquaintance until she has become well established and accepted as an integral part of the community. Even then she should be careful not to confine her friendships to teachers, but should choose friends from other walks of life.

Avoid people who gossip. In some communities, especially in small towns, where it is possible to observe intimately the conduct of a group of people, the proverbial gossip is to be found. In large cities people have more contacts and a wider range of interests and tend to be less concerned about what goes on next door. But where people see each other day in and day out and there is not much variety in entertainment, it is natural for them to become interested in one another's personal affairs. Human beings are always more interesting to watch than anything else because in observing them one can live over again experiences that one has gone through or live through experiences that one would like to have gone through and yet assume no responsibility for the outcome. Gossips are found everywhere, but in a small community they make or break many a reputation. A wise teacher will avoid contacts with these people whenever practicable or, if compelled to listen to them, will do so graciously and be noncommittal in her response. She will, of course, never repeat gossip herself.

Use good judgment about money. Just as a teacher needs to be careful about her personal appearance in school and in the community, so should she see that her financial position is beyond reproach. A dignified procedure is to start a checking account in the community where she teaches and whenever possible pay bills by check. Buying should not be limited to one establishment but should be as widely distributed as possible. If charge accounts have been established, they should be paid with prompt regularity when due. Men sometimes regard women as careless in business matters. One way of developing an impeccable reputation in a community is to exercise care and discretion in money matters so that no criticism will result.

Do not leave town every week-end. After a teacher has taught all week and has seen the same faces and surroundings each day, her natural inclination may be to get away for the week-end so that she may forget the routine of teaching and encounter new situations. This is especially true in small communities which have little to offer in the way of recreational facilities. Although a change of environment is undoubtedly beneficial to most people, the teacher should take care not to create the impression that the community has nothing to offer but a teaching job and that as soon as the school week is finished, another community holds more attraction for her. It is wise, therefore, not to make a practice of leaving town every week-end, but to participate frequently in whatever activities the community has to offer, be it church or only a walk through the surrounding countryside.

Do not break your contract by getting married during the school year. When a teacher signs a contract to teach a certain length of time, she has given her promise to the school and the community to work for their best interest. In hiring her the school authorities have expressed confidence in her ability and integrity to do all she can to make the school year a success from every angle. Breaking a contract after the term has begun not only causes confusion in the classroom with the consequent loss of time and effort but imposes a handicap on the school authorities by limiting their chances of securing an acceptable candidate for the rest of the year. It leaves them with little or no choice of candidates and often forces them to accept someone who is not well qualified for the position. In exceptional cases, of course, it may be all right to leave during the year if the school board is willing, but the teacher should never leave without their approval. It is also unfair to the school and the community for a teacher to become secretly married during the school year, since she has promised to give her whole-hearted, undivided attention to her teaching job. Failure to do so violates professional ethics and lowers the standards of the teaching profession besides exercising a poor influence on every pupil in the classroom.

Use judgment in church affairs. In a large city, where people pay little or no attention to their neighbors, the question of whether or

not to attend a church often becomes a matter of personal preference. This is not true in small towns where church influence may dominate the community. In such circumstances the teacher is expected to show an interest in church affairs either by attendance at service or by participation in other church activities.

Consider the attitude of the community toward smoking, drinking, playing cards, and other forms of diversion and recreation. In many small communities smoking is not even tolerated but is considered one of the worst possible evils. Even in larger communities many parents with adolescent children feel that teachers are not justified in smoking, since they are expected to set an example of good conduct in school and in the community. This is a habit about which a teacher needs to be careful because many a teacher who has disregarded local conventions with respect to smoking in public has been asked to resign or has failed to have her contract renewed.

Drinking is another form of behavior which continues to be unacceptable in many communities and is even less tolerated than smoking. In fact, some school contracts stipulate that the teacher refrain from using alcoholic beverages. Standards are much more rigid for women in this respect than for men. Community feeling is apt to run higher on this subject than on any other.

History tells us that the world has never been without the recreation of dancing. It has appeared in many forms in every race and country from primitive groups to civilized society and has met the approval or disapproval according to the standards and traditions of the country. In America customs differ from place to place. Some very religious communities consider dancing as sinful and do not permit it under any circumstances. Other communities allow high-school dances and dancing at school parties, but no public dances. Still others place no restrictions on it at all. On the whole, though, dancing in some form is considered acceptable. The churches and schools in the community set the standards which they believe their residents should follow. Co-operate with them, and there will be nothing to regret.

The same standards of behavior which exist for smoking and dancing hold true for card-playing and other forms of diversion. To the young teacher unaccustomed to conservative traditions, any

curtailment of personal self-expression is apt to be resented. Yet even though a teacher may feel that the customs are provincial and narrow, perhaps even detrimental to the welfare of the community, she cannot ignore them if she expects to be a constructive influence. The acceptance of this attitude is necessary and although it may call for self-discipline on the part of the teacher, it needs to be accepted cheerfully without inward rebellion. If the teacher finds herself in conflict with the people of her community, she will have difficulty maintaining sound mental health which is the basis of all successful teaching.

There may be school situations which are so conservative that a teacher from a different sort of community cannot adjust herself to them. If a teacher suspects that she may be going into such a situation, she would be wise to investigate before accepting the position and to decide whether or not she can learn to conform cheerfully. If a teacher finds herself in a community where she cannot develop a willingness to conform, she may try to get another position at the first possible moment; but while she remains in that community, it is only fair to live up to its standards.

Co-operate with Parents

The teacher not only is responsible for her pupils during school hours, but needs to extend her friendliness to the parents as well. Co-operation between the home and the school is necessary if the maximum development of the pupil is to be achieved. Friendly co-operation, however, does not mean that the teacher assumes control of her pupils out of school hours. This responsibility rightfully belongs to parents. The teacher merely keeps in touch with the parents and co-operates with them whenever the interests of the pupil may be served. It is essential that she understand the parent's viewpoint, although she need not necessarily accept it. Many parents, of course, have had so few advantages that it is often difficult for a teacher whose understanding of people is limited to make satisfactory contacts. But when parents are inexperienced or uneducated and do not stimulate their children toward high standards of achievement, the teacher should be more careful in guiding the pupils during school hours and, if possible, should make a special

attempt to interpret to the parents the relationships which should exist between what the child is doing at school and at home. Sometimes in addition to providing information, it is necessary to explain the importance of careful emotional training at home. Educators have long been aware of the fact that children imitate parental behavior and that they judge their parents by the ideals which they practice rather than the ideals which they talk about. Although the average teacher may lack time to reach all the parents whose children are receiving inadequate home training, she should do as much as she can in cases where undesirable behavior in the classroom appears to be due to unwholesome environmental conditions. The chief thing, however, is to make parents feel that the teacher has the pupil's welfare at heart and stands ever ready to co-operate in making the pupil's life fuller and happier.

Co-operate in Community Affairs

Primarily, of course, every teacher needs to conduct herself so as to bring dignity and honor to the community and should do all in her power to foster the moral, spiritual, and intellectual life of the community. Personal participation in social and civic affairs is even more important in small towns than in large cities which as a rule already possess adequate leadership. But in small communities the average teacher by joining a local club or identifying herself in some way with a group of responsible adult citizens can do a great deal to foster respect for the teaching profession and at the same time acquaint the community with some of the educational problems of the times. School boards, city officials, and taxpayers are likely to be more willing to provide additional classroom equipment and recreational facilities for young people if a sympathetic understanding of the needs and interests of the students can be established through personal friendship with teachers. Although the school makes heavy demands on a teacher's time and energy, there is nevertheless a definite obligation on her part to assist the community in developing constructive ideals and wholesome experiences for its members.

Develop a Feeling of Belongingness

A successful homemaking teacher makes every effort to acquire

the feeling that she really belongs in the community where she is teaching. If she encourages her pupils to feel that the goals they have set up and the experiences they have helped to plan are their very own, she also needs to realize the value of putting her whole heart and soul into all of her activities whether in the school or in the community. This she cannot do unless she is thoroughly convinced that she is personally fitted for a teacher and that she has made no mistake in choosing this profession. If she considers teaching as merely a means of earning a living, it will be difficult for her to acquire this attitude of belongingness. Enthusiasm and a feeling of possession come only when a teacher makes a natural adjustment to her work and has a conscious realization that she is a necessary part of the school and community of which she is a member.

Self-Checking Questions

12. Do I know my community and uphold its standards?
13. Do I ask the community to help in developing a better homemaking program?
14. Does the homemaking department co-operate with the community on projects to which the department can make a worthwhile contribution?

INTEGRATING BELIEFS ABOUT EDUCATION

Every successful homemaking teacher has a well-formulated philosophy of education which she is able to apply in the classroom. This philosophy is based on her ideas and opinions about life and is a conscious effort to direct her actions into accepted channels of behavior. Just as a philosophy of life tends to encourage self-direction and to make possible the solutions of problems which confront one in everyday life, so does a philosophy of education determine how well and to what extent a teacher will function in the classroom.

A well-established philosophy of education is not an incidental matter, but represents a well-planned background of experiences which leads to an evaluation of classroom techniques and favors the development of clear, systematic thinking. The experiences may

involve a summer-school course which deals with theories of learning, with modern methods of teaching, or with adolescent psychology, or they may consist of carefully planned reading at home of recognized authorities in the field of education. They may include a trip around the country or perhaps participation in some community project. But whatever activity is undertaken should be evaluated for its contribution to a teacher's professional or personal growth.

One of the chief characteristics of a successful teacher is her willingness to try out new ideas that seem worth while. She finds out what other teachers believe and have done successfully in some phase of homemaking and attempts to try out such beliefs in the classroom and in her social life to determine whether or not they can be made to function in actual life situations. If her beliefs and teaching practices are not in agreement, she makes plans to bring the two into closer harmony. Those ideas which do not stand the test of changing situations are discarded. Research indicates that this dynamic experimental attitude is more productive than any other for the teacher and is essential to the best professional development.[4]

Self-Checking Questions

15. Do I really know and can I express what I feel about education?
16. Am I confident my beliefs are sound?
17. Do I put these beliefs in practice in teaching and in personal living?
18. Am I willing to try new ideas that are a challenge to me?

DEVELOPING BROAD AND RICH INTERESTS

Educators have long advocated that teachers possess general culture and extend their knowledge beyond the boundaries of their own teaching field in order to become more efficient in dealing with the problems which confront young people of the present day. Knowledge of such subjects as psychology and sociology as well as

[4] H. H. Giles, S. P. McCutchen, and A. N. Zechiel, *Exploring the Curriculum* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1942), p. 211.

economics and civics makes the teacher capable of becoming an acknowledged leader not only in the classroom but in the community. This breadth of view is essential in a country whose interests have ceased to be purely national and have become world-wide. General culture, however, does not necessarily mean accumulating a large amount of factual knowledge which in itself may be practically worthless. What it really means is having a variety of well-distributed interests which makes the teacher a more understanding person to others and which enriches her own life as well. The following list of interests and comments from homemaking teachers may serve as guides in developing balance for well-rounded living:[5]

HOBBIES:	"I'm at the exploring stage. Just now I'm using nature for making dress accessories and am cultivating a window-shelf garden."
INDOOR LEISURE:	"I'm piano-playing to get past the 'hymn and slow waltz' stage."
OUTDOOR LEISURE:	"The city 'softie' is trying to become a real walker and ski like a native."
ENJOYING PEOPLE:	"I'm seeking adventures in friendship — what I've learned from the oldest inhabitants about this little old pioneer town and its inhabitants!"
TRAVEL:	"My five-day bus trip with pre-reading in history and the 'sights' was this summer's high spot."
PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT:	"We certainly have fun and learn a lot in our mixture of shop talk and nonsense at faculty 'jam' sessions."
IMPROVING SKILLS:	"It's amazing how much more confidence for our work with children I have since I was substitute mother in my sister's home for a month."
ENJOYING THE ARTS:	"It's fun listening to a Saturday opera after looking up the story, its background and costumes, and playing some of the arias."
OWN FAMILIES:	"Last summer's plans for simplifying living arrangements at home with two of us away are working out fine, Mother writes."

[5] Taken from *Teacher Growth in Homemaking Education* (Bulletin 2105; Lansing, Michigan: The State Board of Control for Vocational Education, 1943), p. 26.

Self-Checking Questions

19. Have I made plans for developing broader and richer interests?
20. Am I carrying out my plans for developing broader and richer interests?

Improving the Prerequisites For Teaching

Certain prerequisites for the teaching profession have long been taken for granted. It is false, however, to assume that even these fundamental requirements will continue to function efficiently without a conscious effort by the teacher to improve them in various ways. For this reason several of the most outstanding prerequisites are briefly discussed.

MASTERY OF SUBJECT MATTER

One of the first qualifications of teaching has always been an adequate knowledge of the subject to be taught. This does not mean that once a teacher has taken a certain number of courses and acquired all the information in them that her knowledge of the subject is complete and that she is, therefore, qualified to become a successful teacher in this field. There is something far more important than just knowing the subject itself, and that is the ability to adapt this knowledge to each pupil in the class. It matters not how much actual information a teacher possesses; she must be able to apply it to everyday experiences and make it meet the needs and interests of her students.

Furthermore, it is especially important that she integrate pupil experiences in homemaking with those in other fields and show her classes how certain knowledge can be carried over and be equally effective in various situations. The teacher must also realize that learning of all kinds is subject to change and to be really efficient needs to keep pace with social and economic conditions of the society in which it functions. Every few years terminology in a field changes; new words creep in and old familiar terms are often discarded. Every teacher needs to keep abreast of these changes by studying, reading, and discussions and to guard against falling into

Beliefs About Education — continued	*How Beliefs Were Applied in Own Life — continued*
I should like pupils to learn to think for themselves, to work independently, and to see how they can get along without asking me every single thing.	I am experimentally minded and will change techniques when necessary. I want to arrive. I like to make decisions alone.
3. I try to find out what needs to be done in the community in which I work. Then I try to sell the pupils on what they need to learn so that they will be genuinely interested in accomplishing the things that will help them the most.	I feel that I must always be improving. I have to see the practical application of what I am doing.
I encourage pupils to question themselves about their achievement of the goals in the light of their ability.	I test myself more than I test the pupils. I stop and say, "Am I giving them what they should be having?" It is difficult to weigh the successes and failures. Sometimes they show up so much later.
I help each student, regardless how poor she is in ability, to do the best she is capable of. I realize each pupil has a special worth and contribution.	I make a practice of doing everything to the best of my ability.
4. There has to be an awareness of needs which pupils finally set up as goals. Education should be a give-and-take. It can't be	I plan what I am going to do and how I am going to use my salary check. My bankbook shows how successful I have been. I do this in relation to other

throughout the years, disintegration of personality is apt to take place. It may be natural for a teacher to be nervous when she first begins to teach. If, however, as time goes on, she fails to acquire self-control in the classroom, then she should realize that unless she can correct the condition, she is probably not suited to remain a teacher. But the average teacher, who usually overcomes any nervous manifestations and acquires poise and self-assurance in the due course of time, has won half the battle toward establishing sound mental health. This is especially true if the teacher can start out feeling that she is not a misfit and that she is capable not only of teaching her students but of understanding them as well. This feeling of security in herself and in her work is certainly important equipment for acquiring physical fitness.

Not only is the teaching profession difficult in itself, but it presents obstacles not encountered in all walks of life. For example, in some communities women teachers are not permitted to marry and continue teaching. This is a hardship to many women who feel that they could manage both if given the opportunity. The teacher who decides to forego marriage and a family, or for other reasons does not marry, must therefore make various adjustments if she is to maintain a sound mental outlook upon life. She must not feel disappointed or thwarted but must try to find satisfaction in helping children not her own and in working with families who, though they respect and admire her, may never admit her into the inner sanctum of the home. If it seems impossible to attain this frame of mind, then the teacher needs to seek other means of adjustment perhaps through an interesting and absorbing avocation which she can follow in her leisure time. There are other obstacles, too, such as the difference in the salary scale between men and women and the fact that teachers must submerge many of their personal inclinations. The point, of course, is to avoid inner conflicts and rebellion at situations over which the teacher has little or no control. Setting up definite goals for one's self and finding satisfaction in achieving them will usually produce stability of character which is especially necessary in the teaching profession.

Sound mental health comes not only by making personal adjustments to everyday life but by enlarging one's opportunities to learn

more about people in general and individuals in particular. This means knowing how to deal with others and how to develop attitudes that are helpful to the practical needs and interests of the people with whom a teacher comes in contact. By understanding and helping others one always helps one's self. It is only through an exchange of experiences and a realization of how others feel and think that mental and physical health can be secured and general social progress maintained.

PERSONALITY

A strong, vivid personality with a scientific approach to the problems of education is in greater demand as a teacher than the colorless person of a few generations ago whose teaching success was measured in terms of her ability to discipline the mind and body of her pupils. It is well known that pupils are greatly affected by a teacher's personality and appearance. A teacher who neglects to cultivate those factors which lead to a well-adjusted personality and a pleasing appearance fails to live up to the standards of the teaching profession.

A well-groomed teacher serves as a standard for her pupils and for members of the community in which she lives. The teacher should arrange her hair neatly, but, if she is young, she should take care to avoid adolescent styles. Similarly her dress can be fashionable without being conspicuous. Extreme styles are unsuitable. Simplicity and moderation in appearance are the keynotes to the position which the teacher holds.

Familiarity with accepted social usages, such as knowing what to do in various situations, how to entertain properly, and what to wear on certain occasions, and other social amenities are expected of the homemaking teacher. In order to develop a good personality, the teacher must be prepared and willing at all times to help the pupils and the people in the community to set up high standards in social matters.

The ability to use good oral English is a qualification the homemaking teacher cannot afford to ignore if she expects to achieve satisfactory results with her pupils. Long, rambling sentences seldom convey the desired meaning and more often than not fail to

hold the attention of the class. Inexperienced teachers often start out with a poor command of English, but if care is taken to overcome this defect, it is possible to develop considerable skill in oral expression. This does not mean using flowery language or constantly indulging in witty remarks. Rather it implies clear, forceful English which has far more charm than overdramatic phraseology.

A pleasing voice is a desirable characteristic to strive for. Raspy, high-pitched tones irritate the pupils. A peevish, petulant voice, on the other hand, makes the class uneasy and restless. A teacher who speaks in a monotonous, tired way never generates enthusiasm or zeal. The teacher's voice should be mellow and rich, quiet, yet sufficiently enthusiastic at the proper time and place, and with just enough speed to hold the interest of the class. A well-modulated voice can be acquired through instruction or sometimes through a conscious effort by the teacher.

Poise also contributes toward a well-developed personality. It is usually gained when the teacher has an inward assurance of complete control over classroom and social situations. This means that the teacher not only has confidence in her ability to teach but can control her own emotions as well. Nervousness, self-consciousness, irritation, impatience, and the like indicate lack of self-mastery and make it impossible for the teacher to be well poised. When things go wrong, the teacher does not need to go with them; instead, her strength lies in her self-control.

Tact and courtesy are also desirable characteristics for every teacher to possess, but sometimes she must make a conscientious effort to cultivate these traits. Tact implies skill and adroitness in meeting delicate situations without giving offense. This calls for sympathy and understanding of human nature and the ability to do the appropriate thing at the right time. That is, if a teacher finds herself being tactless, she should try to like people better and to pay more attention to them and their feelings. Courtesy speaks for itself. The teacher need only be reminded that it is a valuable tool which brings effective results. Poise, tact, and courtesy are especially essential from the standpoint of the teacher's own happiness. Occasionally one finds excellent teachers who are not always

poised or tactful, but they are unhappy when they are not and they usually recognize the value of possessing these characteristics.

Professional Obligations

Teaching calls for the development of high ideals of service along many lines, and unless each teacher makes a conscientious effort to do her part, adequate standards of education will not be maintained. Two obligations to the teaching profession which are particularly important are discussed briefly at this point.

JOINING PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Teachers' organizations of one kind or another have been in existence since the middle of the nineteenth century. Expanding rapidly throughout the years, they now exert a tremendous influence in the state or local community in which they function. Their purpose is not only to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching but to promote the cause of education in general, with special emphasis on the welfare of all children. Activities aim to keep the teaching profession at a high level of efficiency and effectiveness, to stimulate professional ideals, to promote professional ethics, and to spread professional knowledge. Some organizations issue magazines, research bulletins, and other publications to keep their members up to date. Many of these organizations have been the means of reorganizing and expanding the educational program and have sponsored activities which lead to the welfare of the community as well as the welfare of the teachers and pupils. It is incumbent on every teacher to join her professional organizations and thus do her part in continuing their contribution to education.

LIVING UP TO A PROFESSIONAL CODE

Formulating a code of professional ethics and living up to it constitutes a part of all teacher growth and development and is just as important as the acquisition of scientific knowledge, perhaps even more so, since a few ill-advised, inconsiderate teachers can injure the

teaching profession out of all proportion to the rest of the group who may practice sound ethics. If the following suggestions are carried out, the average teacher should have little or no difficulty in fulfilling her obligations to the profession she has chosen:

1. Co-operate with fellow educators and conduct all business through recognized channels.
2. Answer all official communications with promptness and courtesy.
3. Recognize only ethical employment agencies.
4. Adhere to the conditions of a properly executed and signed contract, unless it is cancelled by mutual consent.
5. Expect qualifications and ability to be the sole determining factor in appointment and promotion.
6. Give and expect notice in case a change of position is to be made.
7. In seeking a position, apply only to the constituted authority and only for those positions declared to be vacant. Do not underbid any rival or salary schedule. Use only legitimate means in securing promotion, and refrain from seeking increases in salary through unethical procedures.
8. Leave for a successor such information, data, and materials as may be needed in carrying forward the work of the school.
9. Consider adverse criticism of a predecessor or of a teacher of a preceding grade or of any associate as improper.
10. Do not repeat confidential information about any associates.

These principles should always, of course, be interpreted in the light of local conditions, but successful teaching rests on the assumption that each teacher formulate and adhere to some code of professional ethics.

Responsibility for Development

Until recently the extent of the growth and development of a teacher was believed to depend upon the type of society in which

she lived and to be something over which she had little or no control. Modern educators, however, place the burden of responsibility for optimum growth and development on the teacher herself, believing that in our civilization every teacher has the chance to develop to the limits of her biological capacity. Although in a democracy values are measured partly in terms of group needs and interests, at the same time every teacher is given an opportunity to develop her abilities, to expand her interests, and to set up ideals for herself. Democracy encourages hard work, gives dignity to labor, scorns idleness, and deprecates a leisure class, thus making everyone's work respectable. In this way a semblance of equality prevails without undue stress on individual differences. Furthermore, democracy not only offers endless educational opportunities for teachers but permits the flexible use of all educational knowledge. There is, therefore, very little justification for any homemaking teacher's becoming complacent toward her life, and there is every reason for her to take advantage of the many opportunities which democracy offers for the attainment of optimum growth and development.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What points not mentioned in this chapter do you consider important to teacher growth and development?
2. Make a check list of all the points which you believe are essential to teacher growth and development in homemaking. Go through the list and put an X beside the suggestions for teacher development in which you believe you need no further help at present.

   Now go through the list again and put XX beside those in which you need some immediate help.

   Go through the list once more and put XXX beside those in which you need a great deal of help.

   Make plans for meeting these needs and for evaluating progress.
3. Using the check list above, evaluate two teachers of any subject other than homemaking — one teacher outstandingly successful and one who constantly has difficulties with teaching. Does successful teaching of homemaking appear to demand qualifications not necessary in other fields?

4. An inexperienced teacher thought she had tried co-operative planning with her pupils. To the supervisor she said, "I tried to plan co-operatively with them, but it didn't work as well as it should. They aren't goal-conscious." What suggestions can you give the teacher for helping pupils to become goal-conscious?
5. During a visit the state supervisor learned that a young teacher was unhappy because the pupils in her classes preferred to confide in other teachers. The supervisor discovered that the pupils would have liked this young teacher's reaction to their personal and family problems because of her high standards, but felt that she would be critical of anyone who failed to meet these standards. What suggestions might help the teacher to gain the confidence of her pupils and at the same time retain her own self-respect?
6. The superintendent complained to the college about a homemaking teacher who had been recommended by them. When the itinerant teacher trainer visited the teacher, she was much impressed with the attractiveness and arrangement of the homemaking department until the teacher mentioned that she did the work on improving the department on Saturdays because she did not trust the pupils' judgment. What are at least two ways in which the teacher failed to measure up to the suggestions included in the check list developed as a part of question 2?
7. A homemaking teacher was resentful toward the superintendent and the teaching staff, who, she said, "rather forced certain things upon her." She complained, for example, of the shop teacher who asked permission for his class to refinish the dining-room table in the homemaking department. When one of the teachers suggested that the project might be a mutually valuable learning experience for both the shop and the homemaking pupils, the resentful teacher replied, "People around here act as though I didn't believe in teaching things useful to this community." Analyze some of the teacher's difficulties.
8. Do you have any friends in the teaching profession who have been unwilling to adapt themselves to the local customs of the community where they teach? What has been the result?
9. Plan programs which would help a rural and a city teacher establish friendly relationships with the communities where they teach.
10. What suggestions for developing a variety of interests can you offer a teacher living in a small town?

11. What is the relationship between factual knowledge and the following:
    (*a*) co-operative planning with pupils and their parents?
    (*b*) gaining the confidence and respect of pupils?
    (*c*) working co-operatively with the administration, the teaching staff, and the community?
    (*d*) beliefs about education?
12. What conditions often encountered in teaching may interfere with maintaining physical and mental health?
13. A superintendent said of his homemaking teacher, "She dresses in good taste at all times and appears to be at ease in social situations. The mothers in this community feel she is an excellent example for their daughters. Our previous homemaking teacher was good in many respects, but she failed to gain the confidence of the mothers from the higher socio-economic levels largely because of her poor personal appearance and a lack of familiarity with certain social usages." Can you justify the mothers' reactions to the two teachers?
14. Discuss how certain personal characteristics such as poise and tact may not be absolutely essential to successful teaching and yet are essential to a teacher's happiness and well-being.

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Philosophy of Homemaking Education

The philosophy of a man is the well-spring of his life. ANONYMOUS

To MANY PEOPLE the word philosophy has an impressive sound which carries with it an implication of abstract reasoning reaching beyond the boundaries of everyday experience. This is not always true, for philosophy really means the ideas and opinions which one has about the problems of life even though one may be unaware of philosophical implications in them.

NATURE OF PHILOSOPHY

Philosophy does not come ready-made. Nor does one sit down and formulate at one time a philosophy about this thing or that thing. Rather is it a thinking process built up in the course of time from particular experiences in one's life which acquire significance in one's effort to form a picture of the outer world as it looks to him. Then when experiences change and take on a different significance as one matures, new values or new interpretations of values become evident. Progress in thinking, which is a hoped-for characteristic of all serious philosophy, may come as a result of evaluating one's own experiences in relation to those of other people; or it may develop after considerable study and investigation along specific lines. Ideas may be illogical, hazy, or without depth and may even be founded on superstition or prejudice, but if they

deserve the name of "philosophy," they represent personal attempts to answer what life in general means and why and how things differ in respect to each other. In fact, one's philosophy has no limitations but may include everything in life about which one forms vital or over-all opinions. As contrasted with science philosophy represents one's personal idea of the ultimate significance of things — science being an effort to discover and correlate the specific facts and laws of existence without regard for human interests and values.

How a person thinks about things depends very largely on his personality and environment. Intelligence, temperament, and emotional experiences all play an important part in constituting one's mental background. A person may have a good mind and do little about it, or a fair mind and do much about it. Likewise one's character is formed by learning to control one's emotions, which is perhaps only another way of saying that how one feels and accepts things in life depends upon effective development. Strong emotions that are not well controlled hinder clear thinking. A teacher troubled with emotional difficulties which cause her to become depressed, unhappy, or discouraged tends to reflect these characteristics in her thinking and ultimately in her reactions toward her pupils. A teacher who is well equipped mentally and emotionally is apt to build up a more wholesome attitude toward life and to carry this attitude into the classroom. Maturity carries with it an enlarged understanding of self and implies ability to direct one's physical and mental processes into accepted channels which lead to the formation of salutary attitudes and ideas about life.

Maturity also implies enhanced understanding and control of one's environment. There are many material factors in life, such as illness, death, loss of possessions, and war, which are undesirable and difficult to modify, yet their influence cannot be prevented. Unless one learns to make an adjustment to these things, life becomes merely a maze of unsolved problems which prevents the achievement of systematic thinking. Knowledge of self integrated with knowledge of the world leads to a philosophy of life.

The Basis of a Philosophy

A philosophy of life tends to be so all-inclusive that it is difficult if not impossible to separate its various aspects from one another. Any attempt to do so merely results in the setting up of a secondary or related series of ideas and beliefs which are dependent, after all, upon one's total philosophy of life for their true meaning.

THE MEANING OF EDUCATION

Probably the most important aspect of a teacher's philosophy is her interpretation of education. Speaking in general terms, our American system of education is based on the conviction that democracy offers the greatest possibilities for individual as well as group development. The educational program in a democracy should function in terms of the things people do to provide themselves with food, clothing, shelter, health, amusement, and social fellowship. Based on a teacher-pupil relationship that emphasizes guidance and co-operation in the learning process, education should encourage individual achievement and the formulation of personal beliefs and attitudes that will lead the individual to choose an acceptable course in life. Yet through the acquisition of knowledge and the development of various abilities, pupils learn to weld their own individual interests and needs into a social pattern that will benefit them because it benefits others.

How these principles are actually carried out is necessarily left to the teacher, who must formulate some sort of an educational philosophy which will guide her in serving the interests of the democracy in which she lives.

A GENERAL PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

There are many so-called philosophies of education, probably as many in fact as there are educators, each having different viewpoints and stressing policies that involve various techniques of learning. A teacher needs to examine these varied beliefs about general education in terms of what they may contribute to her classroom program. In doing this she will need to consider her work in all its phases — what it contributes to the democracy in which

she lives, how it affects the pupils she teaches, and what she hopes to accomplish with reference to these aspects. At the same time she should realize that to be really effective her ideas must expand and keep abreast of the times. Her attitude should always be a critical one and should be based on a realization that as she undergoes new experiences and as the world about her changes, her ideas and concepts must also change. Although a teacher may expect change, however, she should nevertheless work toward a relatively stable set of beliefs which may safely be depended upon in the classroom. Weighing of casual evidence, however, will not automatically lead to a workable solution of educational problems. A teacher will need to experiment in her own classroom, to try out alternative procedures, and capitalize as best she can on accumulated experiences that have proved valuable in the past. This gradual formulation of a general philosophy of education provides a basis on which a teacher may build up an effective philosophy in her own particular field. For the homemaking teacher this means the recognition and evaluation of the principles and beliefs upon which homemaking education is founded.

DEMOCRACY AND THE FAMILY

One of the basic principles of democracy is the assumption that the family is the most significant of all social institutions. Because of its long history, many people tend to regard the family as having attained a static structure, but this is far from true. On the surface the family pattern may seem to be the same from generation to generation, but in adjusting to new social and economic influences, which are constantly impinging on American civilization, the family structure is bound to show changes. Many of these changes are far-reaching and difficult to interpret; some of them even appear to be undermining the stability of the family itself. Because the family is going through an unusually unstable and transitional stage, it is important that every homemaking teacher study and evaluate all that goes to make up family life. This means taking an objective viewpoint, putting aside fixed attitudes, and disentangling personal experiences in an effort to gain a richer and more

accurate understanding of the social significance of the family as it is related to a philosophy of homemaking education.

Probably the most outstanding influences on the modern family have resulted from economic and technological advances which have produced revolutionary changes in the whole texture of American life. Standards of living have become higher, and with this has grown a desire for greater luxury. Economic wants are further motivated by credit economy which stimulates installment buying. Extensive advertising campaigns and high-powered salesmanship have led to buying in advance of paying, with the result that the increase in the payments that are required from one's salary produces a certain uneasiness and anxiety not involved in cash transactions.

Widespread changes in industry and the relative ease of transportation have caused families to move about from one section of the country to another. This has resulted in the breaking up of large family units so that grandparents, aunts, and uncles are no longer included in the average family circle, which has decreased in the majority of cases to parents and two or three children.

With the delegation to other agencies of many of the productive activities which were formerly the family's — such as large-scale canning and preparation of foods, care of the sick, religious education of children, and recreational provisions — many former responsibilities of members of the family have dwindled away. The use of modern electrical appliances in the home, especially in the kitchen, has caused women to take a new outlook on housekeeping. (See Chapter 2, "Fundamental Aspects of Goal-Seeking Procedure.")

New transportation facilities have led to the building of suburban centers with more single-family homes and more actual floor space per person. Yet because of the time involved in travel to and from his place of business, the suburban father has less time to spend at home or with his family.

Powerful as are these economic and industrial influences in modifying family life, an equally potent influence has been the social process of individualization. This has resulted in a change of methods of control within the family circle. Although the father

is still the main support of the family, in many groups he is no longer the head of the household. The contemporary democratic family now consists of a number of individuals each having special rights and privileges. Parental authority has declined while respect for the individuality of children has increased with the growing realization that the coercive, authoritative family discipline which bound a family together in the past needs to be replaced by mutual love, sympathy, and the recognition and understanding of personal relationships.

This individualizing process has led to a new concept of child welfare. With fewer children, the average mother has more intimate contact with her children than was the case in previous generations. Guided by scientific methods in the care and training of children, the modern mother is bringing up healthier and better-cared-for children than her parents or grandparents did. This intimate relationship between parents and children, involving as it does many emotional factors, is the foundation on which the personality patterns of the children are based. It is their reaction to the other members of the family and to the atmosphere in which they live that largely decides what sort of individuals they will become. Since the following statement from the White House Conference is based on the assumption that the family plays a vital rôle as a builder of personalities, the quotation acquires special significance.

> For every child a home and that love and security which a home provides. . . .
>
> For every child a dwelling place, safe, sanitary, and wholesome, with reasonable provisions for privacy, free from conditions which tend to thwart his development; and a home environment harmonious and enriching. . . .
>
> For every child understanding and the guarding of his personality as his most precious right. . . .
>
> For every child such teaching and training as will prepare him for successful parenthood, homemaking, and the rights of citizenship, and for parents, supplementary training to fit them to deal wisely with the problems of parenthood. . . .
>
> For every child the right to grow up in a family with an ade-

quate standard of living and the security of a stable income as the surest safeguard against social handicaps. . . .[1]

Realizing that successful family living in a world as complex and as rapidly moving as ours cannot be accomplished without effort, homemaking educators not only have been entrusted with the responsibility of imparting knowledge and developing various abilities that lead to better housekeeping techniques, but are instructing young people and their parents on how to establish and maintain wholesome, happy relationships for family and community living. In fact, the chief goal of an adequate homemaking program has come to be simply successful home living.

A Functioning Philosophy

After a homemaking teacher has developed a philosophy of life and has made a genuine attempt to formulate specific ideas and opinions about education in general and homemaking in particular, she should then be able to express her beliefs in writing. This procedure will tend to furnish her with an objective basis for analyzing and planning future action. First statements may be incomplete, in some instances even contradictory, or perhaps not yet strong enough to produce as effective results in the classroom or in her own life as she may wish. But as time goes on, the functioning of her philosophy will improve if the teacher becomes aware of the weaknesses in it and makes a conscientious attempt to resolve them.

In a recent study, teachers were asked to express in a few words their beliefs about homemaking education and if possible to show how these ideas were applied in their own lives.[2] Some teachers expressed ideas and opinions about what homemaking *should* mean but admitted that they did not apply these beliefs consistently in their own lives. Teachers who appeared to be having difficulties in the classroom showed a conventional type of thinking. Superior teachers demonstrated ability to think clearly and to act effectively.

[1] "Children's Charter," *White House Conference on Child Health and Protection* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1930).

[2] Hazel M. Hatcher, *Characteristic Differences Among Homemaking Teachers of Varying Proficiency* (Bulletin 288; Lansing Michigan: The State Board of Control for Vocational Education, 1944).

Although the statements in the study touch only particular phases of homemaking and are in no sense all-inclusive, they tend to show the extent to which some superior teachers have developed a functioning philosophy of homemaking. Several of the statements are given at this point so that other teachers may recognize the value of learning to express their beliefs objectively and to evaluate them in regard to the extent to which they function effectively in the classroom and in life situations.

Teacher's Philosophy of Homemaking Education

Beliefs About Education	*How Beliefs Were Applied in Own Life*
1. I try to tie education up with real problems so that the pupils know what they are doing and why they are doing them. There should be frequent checking with what the group started out to accomplish.	I have goals of my own which I keep working toward and against which I check myself constantly.
I believe that there is more learning when pupils participate all the way through.	I try to co-operate with, rather than to tell, those with whom I work outside of school.
I try to make allowances for individual differences in my teaching.	I do not expect the same things of all my friends and acquaintances. I accept them as they are.
2. Education is a problem of everyday living. Homemaking should be based on everyday home problems of which the pupils see a value or need.	I am willing to work any length of time on problems which seem worth-while to me. Since I need to see the value, pupils do too.
The class group is a community in itself. In class they need to learn to give and take, to co-operate with everyone in the group	I try to put into practice in home and community living the same ideas which I try to teach in the class group.

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Beliefs About Education — continued	*How Beliefs Were Applied in Own Life — continued*
teacher telling. There must be co-operative planning. If students can see their own progress, they will accomplish more. If they can see their own progress in relation to other students, progress will be greater.	problems — see the problem, figure out a way to solve it, and in the end realize whether I have solved it.
5. I believe that democratic principles can be applied in the classroom. Students should have a part in planning the goals, the class activities, and the form of evaluation. They should have a chance to learn that in the democratic way of life there are responsibilities as well as privileges.	The more I live the more clearly I define goals. I have goals important to me — not a large amount of money but rather a feeling of accomplishment in my work and in the pleasure of my friends. I not only evaluate myself but help my friends evaluate their progress, and they help me.
I believe that every student should be treated as an individual personality. It is more important to treat the cause than the overt behavior.	I believe in applying this second idea in my relations with other people but not in the instance of myself, because if I applied it to myself I would be excusing myself for everything I did. For example, a person I know is very silly, talks about men all the time, disgusts everyone exceedingly, but I think that she is that way because her father died when she was little, they did not have much money, and as a result she has a feeling of instability and an inferiority complex which she is trying to cover up. However, I would not find excuses for myself in the same way.

Beliefs About Education — continued	*How Beliefs Were Applied in Own Life — continued*
6. I believe that the function of education is to help people to be able to solve their own problems wisely, to help them to live graciously with other people, and to be aware of social and national problems and to have a sensible outlook on these problems. I believe that the way in which education functions best is to begin with the problems of students, being sure that both teacher and students are aware of these problems, and to work by jointly planning, working out ideas, evaluating results, and then replanning.	I apply these beliefs by analyzing my own problems, finding my best sources of help, and using that help to make plans of most value to me and to others affected by my actions. After carrying out these plans, I check them and when necessary start again and make new plans.

Pupils' Philosophy of Homemaking

Since philosophy is a personal matter involving an evaluation of one's own attitudes and ideas, it functions irrespective of age. A teacher, who obviously has had many contacts with life's various experiences, may generally be assumed to have evolved a sounder philosophy about homemaking education than her pupils, whose opinions and ideas are as yet incompletely formulated. This does not necessarily mean, however, that, as an adult, the teacher should impose her philosophy upon her students even though she may have definite ideas of what successful homemaking education involves; but it does imply that, as a teacher, she is bound to influence the thinking of her pupils to a considerable extent because of her daily contacts with them.

Most teachers know that lack of maturity on the part of pupils does not by any means preclude the formation in their heads of ideas and opinions about life problems. Many teachers realize as

never before that adolescents want to find a meaning to life and that as a rule they think things out with the same intrinsic earnestness at one age level as at another, even though some of their interpretations may not be socially acceptable. The philosophy of young people can be improved only by teachers who are willing to encourage the expression of their ideas and opinions and not regard adolescent thinking as something undesirable or something to be brushed lightly aside until maturity is achieved.

By the time pupils reach high school and begin taking courses in homemaking, many of them will have developed personal ideas of what homemaking means. A random sampling of their ideas on "What Homemaking Means to Me" has been obtained from various sections of the country, and a few are quoted below. Note how they reflect the influence of the homemaking teacher.

> I am glad I am a homemaking student. I have learned to cook, plan menus and budgets, to sew, to choose the proper food and clothing for my family, to care for children, and many other things. When I grow up and have a family of my own, I will be most thankful that I have had an opportunity to learn how to care for a family and home. Instead of having to call on my mother or a book for advice, I will be able to run things independently.
>
> *ninth-grade student*

> Homemaking teaches me how to have better standards of living. I learn how to co-operate and work with other people and how to get along with them. I learn how to do my work neatly and quickly and to keep everything in its place. The course teaches me how to have balanced meals and how to prepare foods with as little cost and effort as possible. I learn how to be a good hostess and guest and how to have good manners.
>
> *tenth-grade student*

> Homemaking means learning to make a home — to be able to cook, take care of the kitchen, serve meals, care for children, arrange rooms attractively, use interesting color schemes, mend and make clothes, even do washing and ironing. Summing it all up, homemaking education means to me just what it says — being able to make a house or a room a home to someone.
>
> *eleventh-grade student*

Homemaking education means a great deal to me. It means more than learning to be a neat housekeeper or a wonderful cake baker — homemaking is the heritage of womanhood. There always seems to be the important triangle of physical, mental, and moral problems to be balanced. The homemaker should be the first to accept this challenge of checking and balancing. Homemaking is growing more important in this country, too. Many housewives are learning new and advanced methods of guiding their families; whole communities are better fed, are more informed about nutrition. I have a lot of faith in homemaking. It has already proved its endurance and worth and will do bigger and better things. I shall be very proud to be a tiny cog in the revolutionary wheel of homemaking.

twelfth-grade student

Value of a Functioning Philosophy

A well-established philosophy of life and homemaking education which will make possible broad applications and interpretations is essential for every homemaking teacher. If she knows where she stands, what her potentialities, needs, and interests are, and how to evaluate them for future use, she can mold her life in terms of goals and experiences that lead to future intellectual growth and personal development. This perspective will stimulate intellectual curiosity; and although it may give rise to questions which will need to be answered in the final analysis, if it is based on a strong philosophy, it will tend to provide relative serenity and security to the average teacher both in the classroom and in her own life. William James said years ago that the most important thing about any person is his philosophy, whether he has ever heard the word "philosophy" or not; one's philosophy sets the scale and shapes the pattern of one's thinking and one's living, and nowhere is it more important than in relation to home and family living. This attitude is further exemplified in the following quotation:

> I want my working philosophy to be like a home I can comfortably live in. It need not make a show of public importance. It has to be roomy enough to house my every-day activities, secure enough to give me confidence, well ordered enough so that I can move around without tripping over the furniture. But I shall not be too much put

out if it falls short of meticulous tidiness. And it can never be really finished; so long as I am alive, I shall be adding new wings and putting in modern conveniences.[3]

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Think back in your life, and pick out those factors which greatly influenced your beliefs about education in general and homemaking education in particular.
2. Discuss the views of several recognized authorities with regard to a philosophy of education. Compare your beliefs with theirs, and revise your thinking if it seems desirable to do so.
3. Write down your beliefs on education, and talk them over with someone who is recognized as a successful teacher.
4. As a future homemaking teacher you will want to work toward putting your beliefs into practice both in the classroom and in your own life. Evaluate each of the following suggestions as to its probable value to you as a teacher later on:
   (*a*) Compare your beliefs with practices you carry out in the classroom, and note discrepancies. If your beliefs and teaching practices are not in accord, make and carry out plans for changes that would improve your teaching.
   (*b*) Analyze your behavior in several life situations to determine whether you are guided by your beliefs. If your beliefs and practices are not in accord, make and carry out plans for bringing the two into closer harmony.
5. What difference does the concept of democracy make in the teaching of homemaking? Discuss the statement: The concept of democracy involves a program of successful living.

[3] Bonaro W. Overstreet, *A Search for a Self* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1938), pp. 3-4.

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Federal and State Organization for Vocational Education

> *Certainly in a democracy the obligation of the government extends to and embraces the means of such an amount of education as will prepare each individual to perform all the duties which devolve upon him as a man and a citizen.*
>
> HORACE MANN

THE BEGINNING of homemaking education in 1798, when the Boston public schools incorporated as a part of the elementary program the teaching of sewing to the few girls who attended school at that time, simple though it may have been, was the first step toward the establishment of a homemaking program which has kept pace throughout the years with the progress of the country. Homemaking education has grown and expanded until, as a recent study indicated, courses are available to almost nine tenths of the high-school pupils in the country. Approximately only one tenth of the schools in the larger communities, one third of those in villages, and two fifths of those in the open country do not offer such courses. Although the size of the community and the school itself largely determine the extent of a homemaking program in any one school, over two fifths of the junior and senior high schools that give homemaking courses offer them from the seventh grade through the senior-high-school levels, while slightly over one half of the high schools offer them in grades above the eighth. The actual enroll-

ment in homemaking classes represents about 50 per cent of the girls and 1 per cent of the boys enrolled in schools offering homemaking. The percentage of the class enrolled at different grade levels is as follows: seventh grade, 11 per cent; eighth grade, 16 per cent; ninth grade, 29 per cent; tenth grade, 23 per cent; eleventh grade, 21 per cent; twelfth grade, 21 per cent.

About 40 per cent of the high schools which offer homemaking receive reimbursement from state and federal funds.[1] This chapter attempts to explain the part which the Federal Government and state governments play in programs of homemaking education.

Vocational and Non-Vocational Homemaking

Homemaking courses which receive reimbursement are known as *vocational* or *reimbursed courses.* Salaries of those who teach these courses are generally paid by the local school board, which is partially or entirely reimbursed from federal and state funds. *Non-vocational* or *general* homemaking courses are usually financed by local funds also administered by the school board.

The differences between the two programs are slight in some states and marked in others. The difference is probably smallest in the states where all homemaking work receives state supervision and where a system of state aid, which tends to raise the standards of all schools in which it functions, has been in effect for some time.

Research indicates that more schools reimbursed from federal and state funds than those not reimbursed offer a well-rounded program, including courses in child development, consumer buying, health and home nursing, home management, and personal and family relationships. The time allotment also varies considerably. Relatively speaking, schools with reimbursed programs schedule more time for homemaking classes than do non-reimbursed schools. Furthermore, three times as many reimbursed schools as non-reimbursed schools give pupils an opportunity to plan and carry out

[1] The statistical data are taken from *Home Economics in Public High Schools* (U.S. Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin, No. 213, Home Economics Education Series, No. 24; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1941).

home experiences, and at the same time reimbursed schools offer more courses in homemaking for adults.[2]

The differences between the two programs should not be construed to mean that non-vocational programs have failed to attain high standards, for in many instances they have. Probably the differences can be explained by the fact that federal-aided programs *must* meet certain standards before they can be reimbursed from federal and state funds, while non-vocational programs are only subject to the same requirements as those for general education, which in some instances may not be as rigid as those of vocational education.

The Development of Vocational Education

At the beginning of the twentieth century when the rapid expansion of industry, commerce, and agriculture created a demand for skilled workers, educators began to advocate that instruction to meet the needs of the country become a part of the public school program. The classical curriculum which was the basis of our early school systems was designed to fit pupils for higher education and ultimately for professional occupations. When the compulsory attendance laws increased school enrollments, the conventional curriculum did not meet the needs of the many pupils who had no thought of higher education but were principally concerned about leaving school and getting a job as soon as the law permitted. Educators, realizing the need for a broader curriculum, began to develop a school program which would teach pupils to do a variety of things with their hands, in contrast to the intellectual type of program. Based on a recognized need for the development of manual skill and dexterity as a foundation for skilled workmen, this program included instruction in the so-called manual or "domestic arts" and became known as "manual arts," with emphasis on activities in agriculture, homemaking, trades and industry. In order to accelerate the program federal aid was sought, but it was not until such aid was provided by law in 1917 that a well-rounded pro-

[2] *Ibid.*

gram was established. Since then federal and state legislation has provided continuous funds for a vocational program.

Some people make a distinction between vocational and general education, although the line of demarcation is not as sharply defined at the present time as it was formerly. *General education* is usually thought of as training to acquire knowledge, form habits and skills, develop intellectual powers and attitudes which lead to satisfactory living. *Vocational education*, when differentiated from general education, implies specific training to increase occupational efficiency. As provided in the various legislative Acts, this training should be of less than college grade and be designed to meet the needs of persons over fourteen years of age in four areas: agriculture; trades and industries, including public and other service occupations; homemaking; and distributive occupations such as store ownership, management, executive work, clerking, salesmanship, and buying. Provisions are included also for supplying funds to be used in the training of teachers for these classes.

At first, objectives were restricted to the attainment of specific skills, but the present trend is toward orienting young people to the broader phases of social, economic, and industrial changes by giving them more general knowledge of available materials, products, occupational needs, and human relationships. The sharp distinction between vocational and general education is, therefore, gradually decreasing.

Vocational Education as Related to Homemaking

Active federal participation in vocational education began in 1917 with the passage of the first Vocational Education Act, subsequently followed by similar Acts. A brief discussion of these Acts and their interpretations in reference to homemaking education may be helpful.

THE FEDERAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACTS

Smith-Hughes Act of 1917

This Act, which is permanent, created a Federal Board for Vocational Education to co-operate with the states in promoting vocational training in three of the areas previously mentioned — agri-

culture, trades and industries, and homemaking, which included the preparation of vocational teachers. Each state which is willing to provide training in these areas submits to the federal board periodically a plan which, when approved, makes it possible for the state to obtain federal funds on a matched basis. The states then administer their own vocational program in terms of approved federal standards. In 1924 the Act was extended to include Hawaii and in 1931 Puerto Rico.

In reference to homemaking education, the Act stipulates that half of the school day must be devoted to homemaking or to a combination of homemaking and related work. The "vocational half day" may be consecutive time, but this is not obligatory. When homemaking classes are held in the morning, related work may be taken in the afternoon or vice versa. Girls taking vocational homemaking are required to enroll in the parallel related course while boys and other girls not in homemaking are excluded from the related course. The Act also makes provision for home experiences and their supervision.

These rigid requirements, which call for segregation of vocational and non-vocational groups and which involve relatively long class periods, make it difficult for many schools to fit vocational training under the Smith-Hughes Act into their regular school program.

The George-Reed Act of 1929 and the George-Ellzey Act of 1934

These Acts supplemented the Smith-Hughes Act by providing additional funds for vocational education for short terms which have now expired.

The George-Deen Act

This permanent law, which was passed in 1936 and went into effect in 1937, supplements the Smith-Hughes Act. It extends the service to include distributive occupations and provides some recognition for public service occupations in trade and industrial education. The Act also permits a more flexible time schedule because it allows sixty to ninety minute class periods daily, depending on the number of years homemaking is offered in the school and on the amount of home experience work. Time is allowed for teacher-

pupil conferences for the organization and supervision of home experiences. Related class work is broadened in scope and becomes optional although it is recommended. Because the George-Deen Act is more flexible and permits broader interpretations, some states have been able to meet existing local needs by providing training for boys, by setting up experimental programs, or by giving vocational guidance. The Act now applies to all the states, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico.

FEDERAL ADMINISTRATION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The responsibility of organizing and administering vocational education rests primarily on the Federal Government through the Office of Education. The staff of the Office of Education has the following duties: (1) to interpret the provisions of federal legislation; (2) to stimulate the development of vocational education in the states and territories; (3) to approve the plan of each state and territory for vocational education; (4) to supervise the program in each state and territory; (5) to carry on research related to vocational education; (6) to administer the finances of the program; (7) and to compile material for the annual report to Congress.

The Office of Education has given a broad interpretation to the field of homemaking. Programs of homemaking in the following areas may be reimbursed:

1. Provision of food for the family.
2. Selection, care, and construction of clothing.
3. Care and guidance of children.
4. Selection, furnishing, and care of the house.
5. Selection and use of home equipment.
6. Maintenance of health.
7. Home care of the sick.
8. Consumer buying.
9. Management of all material and human resources available to home.
10. Maintenance of satisfactory relationships.
11. Application of the arts and sciences.[3]

[3] "Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education" (Vocational Education Bulletin, No. 1, Office of Education; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1937).

STATE ADMINISTRATION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The various states have passed legislation accepting the Vocational Education Acts and providing for the establishment of a State Board of Vocational Education, which is often the same as the State Board of Education, and empowering and directing this board to co-operate with the Office of Education in the administration of the Acts.

Through its staff the board has the following duties: (1) to visit and supervise the pre-service preparation of teachers carried on by the colleges and universities; (2) to provide for in-service training programs for teachers in the field; (3) to prepare instructional materials for local supervisors and for teachers; (4) to assist local communities in locating qualified instructors for vocational programs; (5) to inspect operation of local programs to see that requirements are being carried out; (6) to determine the amount of reimbursement from federal and state funds to be allowed in local communities where vocational education is functioning; (7) to promote the development in the state of new centers where vocational programs may be established; (8) and to obtain reports from local centers and compile a report for the Federal Office.

VOCATIONAL HOMEMAKING WITHIN THE STATE

Plans for homemaking education in a state are included in the plan for vocational education which each state submits to the Federal Board for approval before federal funds can be obtained. These plans are generally worked out periodically by the homemaking supervisory staff in co-operation with teacher trainers within the state. It is believed that co-operative planning in most cases results in a program with higher standards than when planned by the supervisory staff alone. State plans usually include specific suggestions with respect to (1) types of programs, (2) supervision of vocational homemaking, and (3) teacher education.

Type of Programs

Three types of schools and classes are usually in operation: (1) all-day schools, which provide vocational training for pupils of high-school age regularly enrolled for full-time attendance;

(2) part-time schools and classes for out-of-school youth and adults who come back to school during their regular working hours or in the evening; and (3) classes for adults engaged in homemaking in their own homes or in other homes, such classes being held either during the day or evening.

For each type of homemaking program the state plan includes specific requirements as to: (*a*) kinds of schools to be aided; (*b*) purpose of programs; (*c*) basic provisions; (*d*) qualifications of students; (*e*) equipment; (*f*) maintenance; (*g*) minimum length of school year; (*h*) hours of instruction per week; (*i*) place where funds will be used; (*j*) types of programs reimbursed; (*k*) length of program in years; (*l*) character and content of course of study; (*m*) methods of instruction; (*n*) provision for travel of teachers; (*o*) qualifications for teachers.

Supervision of Vocational Homemaking

Also included in the state plan is an outline of the qualifications and responsibilities of the state supervisory staff, which is composed of one or more supervisors who are to encourage in-service improvement of vocational homemaking teachers throughout the state by visiting them, by holding conferences, and by other means.

Teacher Education

State plans for teacher education include information about the following: (*a*) institutions within the state or territory approved for teacher education; (*b*) courses in teacher-education institutions which may be reimbursed; (*c*) qualifications for teacher trainers; (*d*) preparation and certification of homemaking teachers; (*e*) training of teachers in service.

Influence of Vocational Education on Homemaking

At the present time it is not known to what extent vocational education influences homemaking in general. Research which should throw light on the matter is now under way, but until more definite data are obtained, only a partial analysis is possible.

Vocational education is organized to improve constantly both the pre-service and the in-service program. Research and comprehensive studies strive diligently toward the creation of programs which will meet the needs and interests of the people that they are to serve. The research includes widespread experimental programs which are proving very successful. Funds are available for printing and distributing the results of the research which is constantly being made. In addition to these influences, the fact that many homemaking teachers are trained in colleges and universities approved by the State Board of Vocational Education tends to raise the efficiency level of homemaking teachers. Since some of the teachers with vocational certificates teach general homemaking or both vocational and general homemaking, it would appear that they cannot fail to influence and raise the level of homemaking education in general.

At the present time most educators believe that vocational training is a valuable part of education. There may be a few, however, who still cling to the idea that such education is for students in the lower economic levels who cannot afford to attend college or for students with poor mental ability. Consequently, if vocational education is to assume its proper place in American schools, a still more comprehensive program must be worked out which will be understood by all educators, by pupils, and by their parents and which will be wholeheartedly supported by the public. Such a program must recognize more than ever the value of a broad interpretation of vocational education.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Investigate the types of all-day vocational homemaking programs available in the state. Then compare the advantages and disadvantages of these programs.
2. What universities and colleges in the state are approved for training vocational homemaking teachers?
3. Compare the requirements for certificates in the state for teachers of general homemaking and for teachers of vocational homemaking.
4. Learn as much as you can about the arrangements for vocational supervision in the state. What does this mean? What questions, if any, are still unanswered?

5. Describe the kind and extent of part-time and of adult vocational programs offered in homemaking in the state.
6. Talk with homemaking teachers to discover possible advantages and disadvantages of the vocational program in contrast with that of general homemaking. Then weigh the advantages and disadvantages and give results to the class.
7. What provisions does the state make for carrying out studies and research in vocational homemaking education and how are the data used to improve the state program?
8. What services can be expected from the person in charge of occupational information and guidance in the Office of State Director for Vocational Education? What would be the correct procedure to obtain such services?

Appendix

EXHIBIT A

Demonstration Lesson in Foods

Background

TWENTY-FIVE NINTH-GRADE GIRLS, who had just finished studying clothing, took part in this demonstration. They had had their first lesson in foods the preceding day. Since they believed that they already knew how to cook, they were given no instruction in food preparation. They decided to cook together in groups of four or five to see what they needed to learn further. A chairman, chosen by the class, took the teacher's part in the lesson, and the teacher acted as an observer.[2]

From this observation, from the course of study of the school, and from a list of objectives, set up by three graduate classes in a course in home economics curriculum and accepted almost universally by thirty-five hundred high-school students in eight states, the teacher set up the following list of tentative objectives.[3]

Goal: To be able to plan, prepare, and serve family meals that are good and attractive.

1. To know what food my family should eat to keep well.
2. To know how to use these foods in planning well-balanced meals that are suitable for the whole family.
3. To know how to set a table attractively.
4. To know how to serve meals.
5. To learn to be a good hostess.
6. To plan my work so that I will use my time in the best way.
7. To keep the kitchen clean and in order.
8. To be able to prepare the meals as planned.

[1] The lesson illustrates teacher-pupil planning. It was recorded on a stenotype machine.
[2] The lesson approach may be varied to meet existing conditions.
[3] The teacher's objectives were used only to help her plan the succeeding lesson. Some of the objactives were adopted from *Tentative Course of Study in Homemaking Education for St. Paul Public Schools* (St. Paul, Minnesota: Department of Education, 1939).

The purpose in the lesson which follows is partly to help the girls evaluate their first work in foods, but mainly — with the aid of the evaluation — to have the teachers and girls plan cooperatively the objectives for additional class work.

When the teacher called the class to order, the girls were grouped irregularly in a semicircle near the blackboard at the front of the kitchen. Viona, who acted as chairman in the first lesson, sat facing the class. Dorothy, whom she had appointed to assist at the blackboard during this lesson, had already written on the board the menus for the meals prepared in the preceding lesson.[4]

Demonstration Lesson [5]

Teacher: Viona is first going to tell us about the lesson which preceded this one.

Viona: Because of so many visitors, I will describe our plans for the lesson we had yesterday, and I am sure the girls won't mind.[6] As a group we decided that what we wanted to learn in the whole unit was how to plan, prepare, and serve a meal for the whole family. We decided we did not know just how much or how little we did not know; so we thought if we cooked a meal together, we could then decide what things we needed to work on the hardest.

The class chose me as chairman because our new teacher [7] said if she helped we would not be able to test our ability as well as if we did this by ourselves. Since the purpose was to observe very care-

[4] The five menus were as follows:

Group 1
Baked Apples with Whipped Cream
Cinnamon Toast
Cocoa and Marshmallows

Group 2
Cheese and Olive Sandwiches
Fruit Salad with Whipped Cream
Malted Milk

Group 3
Creamed Tuna on Toast
Fruit Salad
Apple Pie
Cocoa

Group 4
Tuna Salad
Muffins
Cocoa

Group 5
Shrimp and Peas on Toast
Fruit Salad
Chocolate Pudding
(prepared powder)
Milk

[5] Notice that in this class of twenty-five students, twenty-one of them spoke at least once.
[6] Twenty adults were present.
[7] Demonstration teacher.

fully, I appointed five girls as subchairmen, or special observers. They are Frances, Imogene, Florene, Bernice, and Audrey.

It was then decided that each special observer should spend all of her time observing, and each of the girls in the class was asked to observe also. Each special observer chose three or four other girls to plan and prepare the meal, the very best meal possible in the hour period. Some of the girls asked for more time, and our teacher raised the question as to whether we could tell so well about our ability to serve meals if upon this occasion we used more than the hour's time. Some of the girls asked what they could have to eat or how much they could prepare. Our adviser thought that might be one of the things we would need to know more about as we set up our objectives.

Yesterday five groups prepared and served the very best meals that they could, and today we are going to try and agree as to what we need to work on as we go ahead with our work.

TEACHER: As Viona has just said, our big job today is to decide what things you have yet to learn if you are going to be able to plan, prepare, and serve family meals that are good and attractive.

When I heard Audrey say yesterday, "Do I have to eat this?" — she was referring to the meal that her group had just prepared — I thought that there must be at least a few things that you would have to learn as you progress with your work in foods. Then when I heard Frances' group talking and heard one girl say, "I don't know a thing about cooking, but I thought you did," and then the other girl answered by saying, "I thought I knew how to make this, but I don't," I began to think there must be quite a lot for you to learn before you can serve the kind of meals you want to be able to serve. Do our six special observers agree with me on this? Florene?

FLORENE: I found it quite true that our menu didn't seem as easy to make as we thought it would.

TEACHER: Imogene was another of our special observers. What did you observe, Imogene?

IMOGENE: Well, the neatness of the meal.

TEACHER: Did the meal look as good as you had thought it would?

IMOGENE: Some parts of it did, and some didn't.

FRANCES: Well, our meal wasn't as easy to prepare as we thought it would be either. We didn't make our meal according to the plan we had prepared.

BERNICE: I think we ought to know about cooking eggs and types of serving.

TEACHER: And our chairman observed, too. Viona, would you say the girls knew how to go ahead with their plans?

VIONA: Some of the girls acted as though they were more experienced than others.

TEACHER: Yes, they did but, at the same time, how many of you observed that you still have some things to learn as you go ahead with meal preparation? Let's see your hands if you agree.

[*The girls unanimously raised their hands.*]

TEACHER: What are some of those things? [*Asked questioningly but did not wait for an answer.*] I remember that yesterday, after they had started to cook, girls from three different groups asked me how to prepare a certain food on their menu. This made me wonder if, in making your plans, one of your objectives might not be to be able to prepare the foods included in your menus. You thought you knew and then when you came to class some of you began to wonder, how do I make an apple pie, or how do I make white sauce for my creamed tuna, or how do I do something else?

Did you observe at least one thing yesterday which would indicate that as a group you do not yet know how to prepare certain foods that you had on your menus or other foods you might be having?

CYNTHIA: Our apples didn't get quite done, and they were too hot when served with whipped cream.

AUDREY: We should learn a little bit more about making white sauce.

TEACHER: How many of the groups which used it had trouble?

[*Hands raised.*]

TEACHER: Was there anything else you observed?

BERNICE: We handled our pie crust too much.

TEACHER: Was it hard to prepare?

BERNICE: Yes. [*With emphasis.*]

TEACHER: Here are two pieces which were left over. When I looked at the crust, I thought you must have had a very hard time rolling it. Did you?

BERNICE: Yes. [*Much emphasis.*]

TEACHER: Who else observed something that would indicate you were having trouble with your meal? Madelyn?

MADELYN: We worked awfully sloppy. [*Laughter.*]

FLORENE: I noticed that we didn't get our time quite right as to when to start the apples, and after they were partly done, when to start the toast. It was very hard that way.

TEACHER: Yes, that suggests another objective. May we come back to that in a moment, Florene?

FLORENE: Yes, of course.

TEACHER: When you ate the foods yesterday, was there anything that wasn't cooked just as you would have liked to have it, anything that didn't come out just as you had thought it would? For example, as I went around I saw — oh, I expect a half dozen girls removing a thick scum from their cocoa before they tried to drink it. Do you remember that, girls?

CLASS: Yes. [*In unison.*]

JEAN: The muffins weren't quite done either — too doughy.

TEACHER: Some of you were puzzled, I think, as to how to finish mixing the muffins. You started making them like biscuits; then when you were about half way through, you wondered how to put in the rest of the ingredients, the eggs and the milk. I think you asked me for help, and I said that you were doing this meal all by yourselves.

Don't you think you need to know more about preparing some of the foods for your menus?

PHYLLIS: I know we need to know more. [*Others nod agreement.*]

TEACHER: Then, what is our first objective? How would you state it?

AUDREY: To be able to prepare the meals we have planned.

TEACHER: All right, we will let Dorothy put that on the board for us.

[*Dorothy writes on board:* 1. *Be able to prepare the meals as planned.*]

TEACHER: I want to raise another question. How many had to hurry much faster at the end of the period than at the beginning?

[*Hands were unanimously raised.*]

TEACHER: Some of you were just rushing about. I don't think I have ever seen girls rush faster. Would you say that was a good plan?

FLORENE: I don't think we could have hurried the apple baking any. The foods didn't get done when we thought they would, and then when they did, we had to hurry up and get them served so we could wash the dishes.

TEACHER: Maybe the difficulty goes back to your menu planning. Do you think that might be true?

FLORENE: Yes, it could be.

TEACHER: Florene has suggested still another objective which we will consider presently. First, let us continue with this problem on use of time. She suggested that just a moment ago.

I believe there were four groups who used ovens. How many of you planned ahead so that the ovens were at the right temperature when you were ready to put your food in? Was yours, Frances?

FRANCES: Yes, it was.

TEACHER: Then Frances' group was the prize group. What did the rest of you observe about the use of time in the kitchen? Were all the groups through at the end of the hour?

AUDREY: No, all the groups weren't through then, and the next class who used the room had to put away some of our dishes because we were already late for the next period.

TEACHER: What if you had come into the kitchen and found dishes to put away before you had begun your meal yesterday? Could you have gotten through as well as you did? Don't you think you should always put away the dishes?

[*Class assents.*]

TEACHER: Does this give you an idea for another objective? You remember it was Florene's suggestion originally.

GERTRUDE: We should plan our work so as to be able to use our time better.

[*Dorothy writes on board: 2. Plan our work so as to be able to use our time better.*]

LORRAINE: I think we should know more about lengthening and shortening recipes, too.

TEACHER: In other words, so that you can use them for —

LORRAINE [*continuing*]: — larger or smaller groups of people.

TEACHER: I know what you have in mind. Some of you found recipes for twelve people, and you wanted to cook a meal for four or five people. How would you change a recipe? Wouldn't that come under our first objective which was to be able to prepare the meal as planned?

LORRAINE: Yes, it would.

[*Hands waving.*]

TEACHER: Now do you want to add anything else to what Gertrude said a moment ago about planning time? Yes, Bette?

BETTE: When we plan the menu, we should plan our time, too.

TEACHER: Yes, most of you forgot about the time element and thought an hour was plenty of time to prepare a meal, didn't you?

FRANCES: I didn't.

TEACHER: Yet your group was the group that had pie. Did this group plan their time wisely?

FRANCES: We never baked a pie before and didn't know how long it took.

TEACHER: What if you had had a guest yesterday, girls, and you were planning to serve apple pie? Peggy, you were in that group, weren't you? Could you have served your apple pie for lunch?

PEGGY: No, it wasn't quite done.

TEACHER: Where was the apple pie when you were at the table ready for your dessert?

EMILY: In the oven.

TEACHER: Yes, in the oven. [*Laughter.*] Bette was right, then. You do have to plan your work so as to be able to use time to the best advantage.

Viona observed all five of the groups yesterday. Viona, who did you think had the most attractive looking table?

VIONA: I noticed that Imogene's group had their table looking awfully neat.

TEACHER: As they were working in the kitchen?

VIONA: Yes.

TEACHER: Did you observe the group when they were serving their meals as well as when they were cooking it?

VIONA: I didn't really notice their serving.

TEACHER: How many groups did you observe?

VIONA: I observed all the groups while they were cooking but not all of them at the table.

TEACHER: Perhaps we should ask somebody else which group had the most attractive looking table. Is there anybody who got around to all five groups, or were you so busy you observed only one group?

FLORENE: I didn't see all the meals, but the most attractive of those I saw was the one which served fruit salad and whipped cream. I don't know whose group that was.

TEACHER: That was Imogene's group. Do the rest agree, or didn't you see the meals so you could judge?

BETTE: It wouldn't be the same because some of the groups had to serve their meals on the desk and there wasn't enough table room.

TEACHER: Yes, there was one group who didn't have a dining

table, so maybe my question wasn't fair. I thought, however, the tables were set better in some of the groups than in others. Did you observe anything that you questioned about table-setting?

JOANNE: I question eating baked apples with a spoon. I think it would be easier with a fork.

FRANCES: We didn't have enough silverware to go around. We had to go collecting silverware.

TEACHER: Evidently you hadn't planned carefully enough. This is another illustration of your second objective on planning use of time.

What else did you observe about setting the table?

ELEANOR: I think we should know more about placing the silverware at the tables. I noticed we didn't put it at the proper place. It was set down anywhere.

TEACHER: How many noticed a sort of haphazard appearance at the table when you sat down to eat? Were there certain things that you questioned concerning the arrangement of the table? Viona?

VIONA: I think maybe the trouble was because the girls were in such a rush that they didn't take time to arrange the silverware right.

TEACHER: And that probably goes back to this objective here [*indicating*] about planning the time.

I noticed that some of you used funny looking cups for cocoa. Did you see those yesterday?

GIRLS: Yes.

TEACHER: They were bouillon cups. We have other cups. I noticed also that some of you forgot to place napkins on the table although napkins were available. Where napkins were used some of them were on the right side and some on the left side. What is your question, Cynthia?

CYNTHIA: When we planned our meal, we only used a spoon and that was to eat our apple with. Was that right or should we have put forks and knives on, too? We really didn't have any use for them.

TEACHER: No, just use the silverware you need. In your particular case you thought you didn't need the forks and knives. However, Joanne thought you should have eaten your apple with a fork. So we still have the question of suitable silverware.

BETTE: If there had been guests, it would have looked nicer to have more silver.

TEACHER: Would you put silver on the table, girls, even though you weren't going to use it?

FRANCES: There wasn't enough silver to go around. If Bette's group had put the silver on when it wasn't needed, it would have inconvenienced the other groups. You just said that we should use only the silver needed.

TEACHER: Yes, Frances. However, there is enough silver for each group to have what is needed.

How many observed that some knives were on the right side and some on the left side, and that some of the forks and spoons were on the one side and some on the other side? [*Illustrating.*] Did you observe that? [*Affirmative nods.*] Then I saw, also, that some salad plates were placed above the knife on the right side and that others were placed above the fork on the left side. Both places could not be correct. The same thing was true regarding your water glasses. Some were on one side and some on the other. Do you remember that? [*Affirmative nods.*]

Was there anything else that you observed about your table-setting? Did you think the tables looked as nice as you want them to look in your own homes?

FRANCES: I think it would be nice if we could learn more about how to set a table and make things look attractive because many people notice such things.

MARY ANNE: I thought our table looked nice, but I wouldn't set a table like that at my own home.

TEACHER: You would want it to look just as nice at school as you would at home?

MARY ANNE: I mean, there wasn't any tablecloth here, and I would rather have a tablecloth.

TEACHER: I think you are just telling us how poorly you planned. We do have tablecloths.

Shouldn't you try to learn how to set a table not so haphazardly as yours looked yesterday?

MARY JANE: I think we should. [*With emphasis and sigh.*]

TEACHER: We should plan and set more attractive tables.

[*Dorothy writes on board: 3. Plan and set more attractive tables.*]

TEACHER: Since all of you were either observing or eating with one of the groups, you had a chance to watch the serving of the meal, didn't you? Did you notice that any of the plates were smeared?

GERTRUDE: Yes. Some were smeared.

TEACHER: Florene?

FLORENE: I didn't notice that at all.

TEACHER: Who else noticed that some of the plates were smeared when served? Audrey?

AUDREY: Yes, I did.

TEACHER: Maybe that was why you thought the meal didn't look as attractive as it should.

AUDREY: That was part of it.

CYNTHIA: At our table we put the whipped cream on the apples right after taking them out of the oven, and all the whipped cream melted and rolled down the sides. [*Laughter.*]

TEACHER: That didn't look so attractive as you had visioned it when you planned it. Can you think of anything else that wasn't arranged attractively?

EMILY: Our salad didn't look as good as we expected because we forgot to put on our list that we wanted whipped cream and so we had to put on salad dressing. We found only a small amount of salad dressing because we hadn't ordered any.

GERTRUDE: Our apple pie looked kind of dilapidated because we didn't have any salt, or butter, or sugar, or cinnamon in it.

TEACHER: I wondered about that. I looked at the apple pie and tasted a little bit of it. I thought maybe you didn't get everything in it. [*Laughter.*] It didn't look as nice as pie usually does when it is cut. You may like to see a piece. We have some of it left here.

[*Teacher displayed the pie. Laughter.*]

Oh, and I noticed this. One group served a main dish of creamed tuna on saucers and then used the larger plates for their salad. Did that look well at the table?

PHYLLIS: No, you are supposed to have the larger plates for the main course.

TEACHER: Did you follow any rules in serving from the kitchen, or did you just go ahead and serve as quickly as you could:

[*There was no response.*]

TEACHER: I might ask you this question: How many would be satisfied if all your meals were served as this one was yesterday? Joanne?

JOANNE: Not all of them.

FLORENE [*interrupting*]: I wouldn't want my mother to say, "The apples are ready now, but the cocoa isn't quite done." I would want her to have everything on the table and not have some things not quite done while the others are getting cold.

TEACHER: Florene is giving us another example of our second objective, but I was thinking more about how to prepare the plates for the table. Some of you smeared your plates and did not serve your food as you wanted it. This idea would also include the dishes and silver which you should use. Even though you plan the meals well and get them ready on time, still don't you need to know how to serve them?

BETTE: Yes, we do need to know more about serving from the kitchen and at the table.

[*Dorothy writes on board: 4. Know how to serve meals from the kitchen and at the table.*]

TEACHER: I observed something else in the dining-room, girls. I thought Viona was the hostess, and then I discovered that she was a guest. Someone in the group had seated her before the food was ready to be put on the table, and before anybody else was ready to sit down at the table. [*Laughter.*] How would you feel if you had been in Viona's place yesterday as a guest?

GERTRUDE: Part of our stuff wasn't finished when Viona sat down.

TEACHER: I know that was true, but who should have seated Viona? Was there any particular person who should have been responsible for seating the guests?

PHYLLIS: The one inviting the guests should seat them.

TEACHER: Yes, the person who is hostess or the one inviting the people to the meal should be the one to take care of the seating.

Another thing I observed was that certain individuals used the silver in various ways. I saw some girls eating salad with a spoon and some with a fork. What person should set the example for the use of silver?

VIONA: The hostess.

TEACHER: And what did you talk about at the table?

GERTRUDE: We talked about how good and how bad our meal was.

TEACHER: Do you think you would like to hear that discussed at all your meals? [*Laughter.*] I thought I heard one girl ask this: "Should I cut all this creamed tuna at once, or should I cut it as I eat it?" Didn't someone ask that? [*Affirmative nods.*] Shouldn't there have been somebody whom you could have watched for the correct procedure?

CYNTHIA: Yes, the hostess.

PEGGY: But she wasn't eating.

TEACHER [*very surprised*]: No wonder you got so lost then. [*Laughter.*] Did it seem to you that there was a lot of running back and forth to the kitchen from the table?

VIONA: Yes, there was. There were many girls who didn't know where the things were, too, and they were all asking for directions.

TEACHER: Who should have directed any absences from the table?

BERNICE: The hostess.

TEACHER: Don't you think you should have something about learning to be a better hostess?

[*General assent.*]

[*Dorothy writes on board:* 5. *Learn to be a better hostess.*]

TEACHER: Some of you were very conscientious about leaving things clean when you got through with your work. I noticed also that one girl jumped up from the table while eating and said, "I forgot to wash the breadboard." [*Laughter.*] However, you will remember that the girls in the next class did some of your cleaning in the kitchen. [*Said in a quesioning manner.*]

FLORENE: I think our group left everything clean, but I wasn't familiar with this kitchen. I didn't know where anything went, and I just had to put things into any drawer. I just didn't know where anything went.

TEACHER: That may be true because it was the first time you had worked in this kitchen. Some of the groups, however, did leave unwashed dishes.

And what about the way you washed the dishes? Do you wash them that way at home? [*Laughter.*]

CYNTHIA: We didn't have any soap or dish-cloth or anything. We just had to use our hands.

TEACHER: There is plenty of soap in each kitchen.

CYNTHIA: We were in such a hurry we couldn't find anything.

TEACHER: To which objective is that related?

DOROTHY: [*Indicating second objective on board.*] Plan your work so as to use your time better.

TEACHER: So you see, you constantly refer to the problem of planning your time. Frances, do you wash your dishes under the faucet at home?

FRANCES: No, but here at school the tub is right where the water runs in. You would ruin your soap suds by letting the water run in to rinse them.

FLORENE: There are some pans in one of the lower cabinets that could be used for rinsing.

TEACHER: How many of you rinsed your dishes yesterday?

[*The hands of one group were raised.*]

TEACHER: I guess I missed that. Group 2 rinsed their dishes. What about the rest of you? Some of you, I think, used lard for making muffins. Did you have any trouble cleaning the cup under the faucet?

BETTE: We let it soak. It was still a little greasy.

PEGGY: We didn't get our flour sifter clean either.

TEACHER: Did you use hot water?

PEGGY: I think I used hot water, but the sifter looked pasty after it was washed.

GERTRUDE [*interrupting*]: I couldn't get at it.

TEACHER: Do you mean you didn't know how to clean it? [*Laughter.*] You are trying to find out what you don't know, girls. I didn't expect you to know everything about getting a meal. Shouldn't you formulate another objective about keeping the kitchen clean?

PHYLLIS: Leave the kitchen as we found it, or better.

[*Dorothy writes on board:* 6. *Leave the kitchen as we found it, or better.*]

TEACHER: Now, is there anybody who can't see these menus on the board?[8] Suppose that every meal was just the type you had here and just as healthful. Would you have any way of knowing or being certain that your family was getting what was needed?

CYNTHIA: I think we ought to learn more about how to plan the meals so we don't have too many sweet things. We had baked apple and whipped cream. Then we had cinnamon toast, and marshmallows in the cocoa. Everything was sweet; we didn't really have anything else.

TEACHER: I think that is a good point. Now, who has another suggestion?

FRANCES: We couldn't eat meals like this every day. Most of us didn't have any vegetables, and we should have vegetables.

TEACHER: Yes. Do you know whether you had the right foods that you would need for a whole week?

FRANCES: Does that include every meal?

TEACHER: That includes every meal, breakfast, dinner, and supper. Suppose you were planning for your family for a whole week. Do

[8] The menus are given on page 430.

you think you could be certain that you had included all the foods you needed?

Frances: You would get awfully tired because most people like variety.

Teacher: If you tried to use the same foods you certainly would, wouldn't you? Don't you think you need to know something about what foods to include in the meals?

[*Many hands raised.*]

Dorothy, will you state the next objective?

[*Dorothy writes on board and speaks at the same time: 7. Know the value of the foods which we are preparing.*]

Teacher: All right. I wonder if there isn't still another objective. Florene suggested one earlier in the lesson that we have not yet included. Somebody else suggested it just a minute ago. You said that your meal was too sweet. Peggy, didn't you say that?

Cynthia: That was I.

Teacher: Excuse me, Cynthia. Imogene said yesterday that the meal prepared by her group was too rich; she said that she wouldn't like malted milk and whipped cream together. Several other girls said they wouldn't like to have fruit salad and apple pie for two out of four foods in a meal. Then when you were planning your meals last week you said, "What shall we put together?" Do you remember that? [*Nodded agreement.*]

How shall we state that objective?

Cynthia: What foods to put together in planning our menu.

Teacher: Yes.

[*Dorothy writes on board: 8. Know what foods to put together when planning a meal.*]

Teacher: Now can you think of anything else, girls, that you should plan to learn in this group of lessons on meal planning, or have you the things here that you thought about as you were working on your meal? Have you left out anything?

Mary Anne: I noticed when we were preparing our meals that the tables in some places were quite messy.

Teacher: Have we included that idea in any of our other objectives so far?

Eleanor: Yes.

Teacher: Which one is it?

[*Dorothy indicated objective No. 6.*]

Yes, to leave the kitchen as you found it. Wouldn't that take care of it, Mary Anne?

MARY ANNE: Yes, it would.

TEACHER: If you have left out anything else, girls, you will have a chance as you go ahead to supply other suggestions. What is going to be your next step in working with them? [*Pause.*] I will make several suggestions, and you may see if you think any one of these would be good.

We might let Viona and the five assistants, each pick out one or two objectives for each group. Then you, in groups, could work out the activities for the whole class. For instance, suppose Audrey and her group took one [*indicating*] — *To know how to serve our meals.* They might decide that the class should work out and agree on a simple set of rules for serving. They might think of half a dozen other suggestions for the class to work on before they could really be sure that they knew how to serve meals.

Or, instead of working on our activities in small groups, the whole class might work together on getting suggestions for each activity. Which would be better? Or do you have a still better idea?

CYNTHIA: I think a smaller group would be better. We could work together and there would be competition, too.

TEACHER: Do you see any two objectives that could be easily worked on by the same group? For example, we have 8 objectives and only five groups. Perhaps certain ones would naturally group themselves together, such as setting the table and serving.[9] Could the same group work on both of these?

GERTRUDE: Yes, and know about the value of foods and what foods to put together.[10]

TEACHER: All right, that is a good suggestion. Who can offer another?

FRANCES: To know how to serve a meal and be a better hostess.[11]

TEACHER: Yes, unless one of these has been chosen already. Shall you let your chairmen select the objectives that they wish to group together? Is that satisfactory?

FLORENE: I do not understand just what you mean.

TEACHER: The point I was raising was whether you should let your chairmen pick out the objectives, or would you prefer to do that right now in groups? I suggested that since our time is almost up we might leave it for your chairmen. Would you rather take a few minutes and do it right now?

[9] Objectives 3 and 4.

[10] Objectives 7 and 8.

[11] Objectives 4 and 5.

CYNTHIA: I think the chairmen ought to get together and pick out the objectives. They would know more about it because they were the special observers.

TEACHER: Does somebody else have a different idea, or do you want to accept Cynthia's idea that you let your chairmen select the objectives for your group?

FLORENE: Suppose I chose serving the meals?

TEACHER: Some of you might decide that you would like to put on a mock meal in order to practice table service. Or some of you might like to work out rules for serving meals as was suggested a while ago. Still others might prefer to give demonstrations of different kinds of table service.

These are just examples of suggestions that you might use. Of course, each group would work out its own ideas and bring suggestions back to the whole group for final selection. Are you agreed then to let the chairmen select the objectives? [*General assent.*] As soon as you know the objective your group is to work on, then you can go ahead and collect suggestions. We will ask your chairmen to have their selections made before the next class. That is all today.

SUMMARY

TENTATIVE PUPIL OBJECTIVES AS SET UP BY TEACHER	PUPIL OBJECTIVES ARRIVED AT IN CLASS
1. To know what food my family should eat to keep well.	7. Know the value of the foods we are preparing.
2. To know how to use these foods in planning well-balanced meals that are suitable.	8. Know what foods to put together when planning a meal.
3. To know how to set a table attractively.	3. Plan and set more attractive tables.
4. To know how to serve meals.	4. Know how to serve meals from the kitchen or at the table.
5. To learn how to be a good hostess.	5. Learn to be a better hostess.
6. To plan my work so I will use my time in the best way.	2. Plan our work so as to be able to use our time better.
7. To keep the kitchen clean and in order.	6. Leave the kitchen as we found it or better.
8. To be able to prepare the meals as planned.	1. Be able to prepare the meals as planned.

EXHIBIT B

Performance Test for Self-Evaluation[1]

THE PURPOSE of this problem is to improve performance in meal planning, preparation, and serving by means of self-evaluation devices. The class has already used self-evaluation devices[2] during the unit on "Meals to Meet My Family's Needs." It is planned that this problem on meal planning, preparation, and serving will probably require one week of approximately one period a day.

FIRST DAY

On this day the teacher and pupils together should probably decide on some of the abilities in meal planning, preparation, and serving which they feel are important to check pupil achievement. The following are examples of possible choices:

1. To plan a well-balanced meal.
2. To make a work schedule.
3. To prepare the food included in the menu.
4. To keep the kitchen clean and in order while working.
5. To set the table correctly and attractively.
6. To serve a meal correctly.
7. To be a good hostess.
8. To check progress.

The class help to decide that the best plan will be to divide the usual family group of four into sets of partners in order to give each

[1] Exhibits A, B, and C represent different stages in a unit on foods. Exhibit A was the second lesson in the unit. Exhibit B shows how students work on improving their performance in meal planning by means of self-evaluation. Exhibit C is a new-type test of factual knowledge about meal planning.

[2] Clara M. Brown and others, *Food Score Cards* (Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1940); and Hazel M. Hatcher and Clara M. Brown, *Self-Teaching and Self-Evaluation Devices* (Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Co., 1940).

girl an opportunity to check her progress toward each goal. They further decide to plan, prepare, and serve an emergency meal consisting of a meat substitute, a salad, and a quick bread. To make the school situation more like a home situation, the food used should in the main be foods already on hand. The list of foods may or may not be developed with the help of the pupils. The following list is merely a suggestion.

apples	celery	lettuce
baking powder	cheese	milk
butter	eggs	salad dressing
canned peas	flour	salt
carrots	lard	sugar

SECOND DAY

Each set of partners is then ready to plan a well-balanced menu for the whole family group and to make a work schedule to be used the next two days. One set of partners checks the other set using Devices 1 and 3 from *Self-Teaching and Self-Evaluation Devices.*

Objectives:

1. To plan a well-balanced meal.
2. To make a work schedule.

THIRD AND FOURTH DAYS

It is decided that the next two days are to be similiar, the two sets of partners rotating the responsibilities of preparing and serving a meal and of checking.

For example:

Partners A work on the following goals:

1. To prepare the food included in the menu.
2. To keep the kitchen clean and in order while working.
3. To set the table correctly and attractively.
4. To serve a meal correctly.
5. To be a good hostess.

Partners B work on checking progress.

Partners B check partners A according to the division of responsibilities. For instance, if one girl alone prepared a cream dish for the meat substitute, set the table, and helped to wash dishes, she would be checked on the Minnesota Food Score Cards for creamed products

and on Devices 3, 4, and 5 — "Planning Best Use of Time," "Check List for Keeping Kitchen Clean," and "Check List for Table Setting" — from *Self-Teaching and Self-Evaluation Devices*.

FIFTH DAY

The class decides to use the fifth day for summarizing results. Partners A and B will each total the scores which they checked for each other and then exchange checking devices so that each girl may see her own score. Adjustments in scores should be made when it seems advisable. Each family group will probably want to compare results.

EXHIBIT C

New-Type Test

New-Type Test

The following test was developed for a tenth grade class studying meal preparation and serving. The test is intended to measure knowledge in regard to the following objectives:

Goal: To be able to plan, prepare, and serve family meals that are good and attractive.

1. To know what food my family should eat to keep well.
2. To plan well-balanced meals suitable for the whole family.
3. To plan the best use of time in the kitchen.
4. To keep the kitchen clean and in order.
5. To set the table attractively.
6. To serve meals correctly.
7. To be a good hostess.
8. To be able to prepare the meals as planned.

The reliability of this test based on approximately 500 cases proved to be .95. With a perfect score being 98, about 70 per cent of senior-high-school home economics students scored between 52 and 71.

The test itself provides space for answers. If, however, the teacher wishes to use the same test more than once, she may use answer sheets. An answer sheet can easily be constructed by simply putting the numbers 1–98 (with brackets around 37 and 38 and around 39, 40, and 41) on a sheet of ruled paper. The student may then write the correct answer after each number. How the answer sheet will look is illustrated by the key for this test which is given on page 457.

Meal Preparation Test

Name .... Sex .... Date....................

School.................... Grade.................... Age ....

Number of points in the test ...98...
Number of errors on odd items ....
Number of errors on even items ....
Total number of errors ....

Score ......

Directions: Put an *X* before each item which is correct, and put an *O* before each item which is not correct.

Cheese is valuable in the diet of the average person because it provides

.... 1. cellulose.
.... 2. inexpensive but good quality protein.
.... 3. vitamin C.
.... 4. high heat and energy value per serving.
.... 5. the same minerals that milk does.

Citrus fruits are valuable in the diet, because they

.... 6. provide needed acid.
.... 7. stimulate the appetite.
.... 8. furnish vitamin B.
.... 9. furnish vitamin C.
.... 10. are laxative.

The standard set up by many food specialists is three cups of milk a day for children and a pint a day for adults. This much milk is recommended because

.... 11. milk contains all necessary food materials for growth and development.
.... 12. milk furnishes vitamin D.
.... 13. milk is high in iron.
.... 14. milk is usually the most economical source of protein.
.... 15. milk supplies an abundance of calcium and phosphorus.

When cup cakes have rounded tops and are cracked open, it is probably the result of

.... 16. too hot an oven.
.... 17. too much sugar.
.... 18. too much liquid.
.... 19. using bread flour in a recipe which called for cake flour.
.... 20. inadequate mixing of ingredients.

Pie crust is often tough, hard, solid, and leathery. Such a product may result because

.... 21. the dough was handled too much.
.... 22. the dough was rolled too thin.
.... 23. the fat was cut in too finely.
.... 24. too much fat in proportion to the flour was used.
.... 25. the crust was baked at too high a temperature.

The following practices should be recommended:

.... 26. steep tea leaves for one to three minutes in water just below the boiling point.
.... 27. boil frozen peas for only a few minutes.
.... 28. boil fresh carrots in a small amount of water and use the water if possible.
.... 29. cook cheese for a long time but keep it at a low temperature.
.... 30. in making gravy use the same amount of browned flour as you would white flour.
.... 31. after dried fruit has been soaked, discard the water, add fresh water, and cook slowly until tender.

Directions: Place in the proper blank in front of each description, the letter of the item in the Key List to which the description refers. No item can be used in more than one blank.

KEY LIST

A. Bulk
B. Caffein
C. Calories
D. Cornstarch pudding
E. Cream of corn soup
F. Cream of green pea soup
G. Cream of tomato soup
H. Lamb chops
I. Liver

KEY LIST

J. Minerals
K. Protein
L. Round steak
M. Scrambled eggs
N. Soufflé
O. Tannin
P. Theobromine
Q. Vitamins

DESCRIPTIONS

.... 32. stimulant found in coffee
.... 33. food most successfully cooked by broiling
.... 34. food in which starch swells and thickens liquid in the presence of heat
.... 35. particularly valuable for the prevention of anemia
.... 36. food in which heat causes the loss of vitamin C when soda is added
.... } 37, 38. two protein mixtures which are thickened by moderate heat
.... } 39, 40, 41. three things that vegetables in general supply in the diet

The following questions are based upon the situation which is described on this sheet.

SITUATION

Elizabeth James is a sophomore in high school. She lives in the Twin Cities with her parents and her brother Robert. The family is in comfortable circumstances.

One Friday afternoon recently, Mrs. James was called away because of the illness of a friend and was unable to return until just in time to greet Mr. and Mrs. White who had been invited for a six o'clock dinner on Saturday.

Hired help was available for the Saturday cleaning and for serving the dinner, but Elizabeth had to assume all the other responsibilities connected with the planning, preparing, and serving of the meals.

Elizabeth planned the following menus for Saturday:

Breakfast

Canned Figs
Scrambled Eggs
Caramel Rolls [1] Butter
Cocoa

Lunch

Macaroni and Tomatoes
Hot Biscuits Butter
Raspberry Jelly
Cup Cakes Whipped Cream
Milk

Dinner

Grapefruit Juice
Rump Roast Brown Gravy
Baked Potatoes
Carrots and Green Peas
Prune and Cottage Cheese Salad
Hot Rolls [1] Butter
Custard Pie
Jelly
Tea and Milk

[1] Bought from the store.

Directions: Put an X before each statement which you think describes the menu mentioned and an *O* before each one which does not.

Breakfast

.... 42. was too sweet.
.... 43. had a desirable combination of textures.
.... 44. supplied sufficient calories.

Lunch

.... 45. included too little bulk (cellulose).
.... 46. included too much starch.
.... 47. had sufficient color to be attractive.
.... 48. had a pleasing combination of bland and highly flavored foods.

Dinner

.... 49. furnished a satisfactory amount of vitamin C.
.... 50. included too many foods that required last-minute preparation.
.... 51. had an interesting contrast in textures.

The menus would be improved if the following substitutions were made:

.... 52. buttered toast for caramel rolls.
.... 53. combination fruit salad for cup cakes and whipped cream.
.... 54. sweet potatoes for Irish potatoes.
.... 55. Spanish rice (rice and tomatoes) for macaroni and tomatoes.
.... 56. date pudding for custard pie.
.... 57. omelet for scrambled eggs.

Directions: Put an *X* before each of the following which you think was correct and *O* before each one which was questionable or incorrect.

These things were done during the evening:

.... 58. Mr. and Mrs. White arrived at approximately 5:55 P.M.

.... 59. People seated themselves from the left side of their chairs.

.... 60. Mr. James passed the first plate to the left without mentioning for whom it was intended.

.... 61. The gravy was passed so that each person could help himself.

.... 62. Mrs. James passed the jelly to the right after serving herself.

.... 63. Mrs. White cut her meat holding her fork in her left hand with the tines down and with her index finger on the back of the fork and the fork handle in the palm of her hand.

.... 64. Mrs. White held her little finger a bit detached from the rest of her fingers when she drank her tea.

.... 65. The rolls had been placed in front of Mrs. White, but she was busy talking to Mr. James; so Robert asked to be excused and reached past her to get a roll.

The woman who helped with the dinner:

.... 66. placed and removed everything except the beverage from the left, using her left hand.

.... 67. carried the dessert forks to the table on a small tray when she was ready to serve the custard pie.

.... 68. stacked the soiled dishes at the left of the sink.

.... 69. stacked the roaster in which the gravy was made on the pie pan and stacked the vegetable kettles on the top of the gas stove.

.... 70. put the small amounts of leftovers, meat and vegetables, in the same covered bowl in the refrigerator.

.... 71. began by washing the silver first, using hot soapy water.

When Elizabeth set the table for *breakfast*, she used

.... 72. one spoon.
.... 73. one fork.
.... 74. one knife.

When she set the table for *lunch*, she used

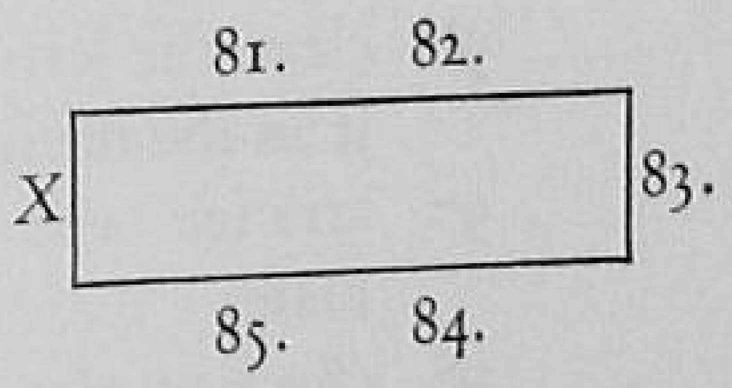
.... 75. one spoon.
.... 76. one knife.
.... 77. two forks.

When she set the table for *dinner*, she placed

.... 78. the salad fork between the plate and the dinner fork.
.... 79. the carving knife to the right of the serving spoons at her father's plate.
.... 80. the dish of peas and carrots at the right of the platter of meat and potatoes.

Mrs. James sat at the end of the table marked X. Indicate where each other person should sit at the table by writing the name in the blank with the number corresponding to the location at the table.

.... 81.
.... 82.
.... 83.
.... 84.
.... 85.



Directions: In the blank in front of each job listed which Elizabeth had to do on Saturday, write the letter which indicates the time when she should do it. For example, she should heat the rolls during the last ten minutes before the meal is served, so D is written in the blank.

Jobs to be done		*Periods of time*
...D...	heat rolls	A. Before the time at which the actual preparation of the meal is begun.
....	86. cook the scrambled eggs	B. At beginning of the time of the actual preparation of the meal.
....	87. bake the cup cakes	C. Between B and D.
....	88. bake the custard pie	D. Last ten minutes before the meal is served.
....	89. fill the water glasses	E. Just before people sit down at the table.
....	90. steep the tea	
....	91. put the rump roast in the oven	
....	92. put the potatoes in the oven to bake	
....	93. prepare the prunes for salad	
....	94. set the table for lunch	
....	95. squeeze the grapefruit for juice	
....	96. clean the lettuce and put it in the refrigerator	
....	97. arrange the salad on plates	
....	98. check on the table linen, china, and silver to be used for dinner	

KEY FOR MEAL PREPARATION TEST

1. *0*
2. *X*
3. *0*
4. *X*
5. *X*
6. *X*
7. *X*
8. *0*
9. *X*
10. *X*
11. *0*
12. *0*
13. *0*
14. *X*
15. *X*
16. *X*
17. *0*
18. *0*
19. *X*
20. *0*
21. *X*
22. *0*
23. *X*
24. *0*
25. *0*
26. *X*
27. *X*
28. *X*
29. *0*
30. *0*
31. *0*
32. *B*
33. *H*
34. *D*
35. *I*
36. *G*

37–38. *M, N*

39–41. *A, J, Q*

42. *X*
43. *0*
44. *X*
45. *X*
46. *X*
47. *0*
48. *0*
49. *X*
50. *0*
51. *X*
52. *X*
53. *X*
54. *0*
55. *0*
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58. *X*
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63. *X*
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67. *X*
68. *0*
69. *0*
70. *X*
71. *0*
72. *0*
73. *X*
74. *X*
75. *0*
76. *X*
77. *X*
78. *X*
79. *X*
80. *0*
81. *Robert*
82. *Mrs. White*
83. *Mr. James*
84. *Elizabeth*
85. *Mr. White*
86. *D*
87. *A*
88. *A*
89. *E*
90. *E*
91. *B*
92. *C*
93. *A*
94. *C*
95. *C*
96. *A*
97. *C*
98. *A*

EXHIBIT D

Demonstration Lesson in Consumer Buying[1]

Background for the Lesson in Consumer Buying

The group which had participated in the demonstration lesson in foods also took part in the demonstration lesson in consumer buying.

In the lesson which follows the teacher attempts to help the girls decide on at least one thing to study in consumer buying. The teacher had in mind the following objective: "To learn how to evaluate advertising material." She hoped to be able to guide the class to choose and formulate this objective.

She also hoped to be able to get suggestions from the class as to activities they might carry on in trying to attain their goal.

The teacher had in mind the following activities which she planned to use only as supplementary suggestions:

1. Report on dependability of information given by salespeople.
2. Dramatize a conversation between a salesman and a buyer.
3. Tell how advertising or sales talk influences the prospective buyer.
4. Make a collection of seals of approval awarded by private or government agencies. Find what guarantee is behind each seal.
5. List and evaluate any other agencies which operate for the benefit of consumers, even though they do not furnish seals of approval.
6. Visit testing laboratory in a large department store to see

[1] The lesson illustrates teacher-pupil planning in setting up goals and choosing experiences. It was recorded on a stenotype.

the methods used and the findings obtained on various articles tested. Compare this information with that which the ordinary person is able to obtain.

7. Select advertisements from magazines and newspapers. Decide what appeals are made. Evaluate each advertisement by crossing out words which do not describe quality. Count the remaining words, and figure out what proportion of the advertising material gives information on quality.
8. Arrange an exhibit of good and poor advertising accompanied by short statements telling why each is or is not good from the consumer's point of view.
9. Clip an advertisement of a special sale from the local newspaper. Make a study and compute the actual saving on particular articles by comparing sale prices with usual prices.
10. Prepare from a consumer's point of view an example of a satisfactory advertisement of a commonly used article.

When the teacher called the class to order the girls were grouped irregularly in a semicircle near the blackboard in the clothing room.[2] Frances, who had a special contribution to make, sat at the teacher's table, facing the class. Dorothy and Phyllis, who were to be official secretaries for the class on this day, worked at the same table.

Demonstration Lesson

Teacher: Frances is going to read us a story, girls. She didn't like the original title; so she substituted one of her own. Frances?

Frances: A Symposium on Advertising[3]

"Not long ago, I had fallen asleep on the divan when suddenly into my tranquillity came startling revelations.

"I saw a young girl in school mournfully alone in a corner of the gym. Her constant loneliness was agonizing until an understanding auntie told her gently that she was offending and must use 'Lifebuoy'

[2] Approximately twenty adults were present.

[3] Amy Ballagh (senior-high-school girl), "Tish, Tish," *New York State Education*, New York State Teachers Association, Albany, May, 1934.

to banish the 'B.O.' that made people avoid her. Her popularity slightly increased, but, alas, she had forgotten to gargle with 'Listerine' that morning, so for another whole day the demon 'Halitosis' drove away all who would approach her. Strangely enough she was still unduly unpopular until a compassionate friend invited her to stay over night and incidentally showed her the simple four minute 'luxing of under-things.'

"The next day she set forth with unbounded self-assurance. However the girl lacked the vitality to keep up with the rest even in her newly discovered daintiness. In desperation she rushed to the drug store and refreshed herself with 'Nestlé's Hot Chocolate.' The rush of pep made her a leader of her crowd, and the winter became a joyful rush of skating, hiking, and sliding parties. As the lass became increasingly vigorous and popular, she began to smile; but as often as she did, a friend turned distastefully away until she *dared* not smile. One day she used her popular brother's toothpaste, and thus she discovered 'Colgate's' which so enhanced her smile that her associates wondered why they had not discovered her before.

"It was then that her night life started, but it was to be short-lived. The careless wench had eaten too much chocolate and her skin was broken out. Yeast and none other than 'Fleischmann's' saved the day, and those who had shrunk from her pimply face gazed with admiration at the 'Camayed' complexion (which won the beauty contest for her after she had delicately rounded her unshapely jaw by chewing 'Wrigley's').

"Now it seemed that the girl's mother demanded help; and shame for her 'dishpan hands' became an obsession with her until she discovered one day that 'Ivory Snow' for the dishpan was the economical treatment for the hands, thus killing two birds with one stone. Again her presence at gala events became the demand, but she had suddenly lost her pep. Every night she just sat around, impatient with those who begged her to join them. Finally at the urging of her friends, she switched to Chase and Sanborn's 'dated coffee' and once more became the life of the party. She came near a downfall again by displaying a run in her stocking caused by using cake soap, and only 'Lux' made it possible for her to afford beautiful hosiery. Her social life was hard on her and the midnight lunches spoiled her fun by causing indigestion. 'Ovaltine' was the faultless remedy for sleepless nights and 'Tums' saved her pleasure in the midnight goodies. For a poor school girl, powder was a constant expensive neces-

sity until the discovery of 'Pond's' (so much like the French $3.00 powders for only 55 cents) made her ravishingly beautiful. One day in the lunch room our prodigy heard her name and imagine, she actually admitted that she never had been kissed. A change to 'Palmolive' preserved her 'school-girl complexion' and 'Tangee' made her lips irresistible!

"The sound of steps on the porch awakened me with a start and I felt the overwhelming inferiority complex of an advertisement reader, for I used neither 'Lifebuoy' nor 'Tangee.'"

TEACHER: Thank you, Frances. Are you acquainted with all the products to which she referred, girls? Lifebuoy soap, for example, are you familiar with that?

[*Several hands were raised.*]

How about Listerine, Nestlé's Hot Chocolate, Fleischmann's, Colgate's — were you puzzled, Peggy?

PEGGY: No.

TEACHER [*continuing*]: Wrigley's Chewing Gum, Ivory Snow, Chase and Sanborn's dated coffee, Palmolive Soap, Pond's, and Tangee — Suppose we select one that some of you have used. You may know of somebody that has used it even though you haven't used it yourself. How about Colgate's?

[*Several hands raised.*]

TEACHER: Is there anybody who hasn't heard of it?

[*One hand was raised.*]

FRANCES: Joan Graves used Colgate's, and the dentist told her not to.

TEACHER: Let's start with Colgate's then. The story Frances read suggested that if you want to become popular you must use Colgate's. Wasn't that so, Frances?

FRANCES: Yes.

TEACHER: I have here in my hand a Colgate ad. There is a picture here [*indicating*] of two girls on a ship. One of them says, "I wish I had never come on this cruise. I hate it when everybody is so standoffish." The other girl says, "No, they are not, Carroll, really."

Then follows a series of pictures in the ad, and the last one shows the girl after using Colgate's Dental Cream. She is having a wonderful time. She is surrounded by men clamoring for a dance. Every man on board is waiting to dance with her. [*Laughter.*]

Now, when you used Colgate's, did you notice that it made any difference in the number of friends that you had?

JOANNE: Yes, I did.

TEACHER: Can you tell us something about it?

JOANNE: I think your teeth are much better. They look prettier and shine.

TEACHER: You think it made a difference in your appearance, and your appearance made the difference in the number of friends you had?

JOANNE: Yes.

TEACHER: Have some of the rest of you had the same experience?

[*There was no response.*]

TEACHER: Peggy?

PEGGY: No, I don't use Colgate's.

FLORENE: I'm using it now and am waiting for improvement.

TEACHER: You are waiting for it and it hasn't come?

FLORENE: I haven't used it very long.

TEACHER: We should have some more information on this, I think. Who else has used Colgate's at some time?

GERTRUDE: I didn't notice any difference at all.

TEACHER: You see, we have had all sorts of ideas here. Joanne thought Colgate's made her more popular; Gertrude said she didn't notice any difference; and Florene said she was still waiting for improvement.

Let's take another product that Frances mentioned. Frances, when you chew gum do you ever chew Wrigley's? [*Frances is the class gum-chewer.*]

FRANCES: Yes.

TEACHER: Who else chews Wrigley's?

[*Approximately ten hands were raised.*]

TEACHER: Quite a few. Is there anybody in the group who doesn't chew gum, or who chews only occasionally?

[*Three hands were raised.*]

TEACHER: Now, let's do some observing. Did you notice the girls who seldom chew gum? [*Affirmative nods.*] According to the ad, their jaws wouldn't be as well shaped as those who do chew gum. Look around and see what you think about that. Frances has very well-shaped jaws. Do you notice any difference in the girls who don't chew gum?

FLORENE: I haven't really noticed any difference.

TEACHER: How many have noticed a difference?

[*There was no response.*]

TEACHER: Have you, Madeline?

MADELINE: No.

TEACHER: Have you, Peggy?

PEGGY: No.

TEACHER: Do you notice any difference between, say Gertrude and Florene, and Frances and some of the other girls who are the gum-chewers? How many do?

[*There were no hands raised.*]

TEACHER: Well, according to the ad, Frances and those who do chew Wrigley's should have better shaped jaws.

Let's go back to last week for a moment. I remember one day you were trying on colors to find the most becoming ones. Do you remember that? [*Class nodded affirmatively.*] In doing this you studied each other's coloring, complexion, etc. Let's pick out some person who has a very good complexion.

BETTE: I think that Gertrude has a very nice complexion.

TEACHER: Gertrude, have you ever used Fleischmann's yeast? [*Laughter.*]

GERTRUDE: No.

TEACHER: Well, who else has a good complexion?

MADELINE: Cynthia.

TEACHER: Cynthia, have you ever used Fleischmann's yeast?

CYNTHIA: I tasted it once and that was enough. [*Laughter.*] I know a girl named Dorothy Gibbs, and her complexion wasn't so nice. She used it and it helped her. I know it did, but she put the yeast in water. I have tried to eat it plain, but couldn't. [*Laughter.*]

TEACHER: I happen to know a girl — excuse me, Florene?

FLORENE: I know a boy that used it and there was no improvement.

TEACHER: Well, on one hand we have no improvement and then again we have some.

CYNTHIA: It helps some people, but with others it doesn't help at all.

TEACHER: That is exactly the idea I have in mind. I happen to know a person who had pimples and she thought Fleischmann's yeast might help. She had read the advertisement, and took three

cakes a day in water. Instead of getting better, in her particular case, she got worse. She finally had to go to the doctor. On the other hand, some of you have known people who showed improvement.

Now, how many of you have had too many runs in your hosiery?

[*Most of the girls raised their hands.*]

TEACHER: Do you, who don't have runs, use Lux soap? Florene?

FLORENE: I am in favor of Dreft.

TEACHER: You don't use Lux but you use Dreft. Let me see, there are several girls over there [*indicating*] who aren't as hard on hosiery as I am and as most of the class are. Do you use Lux, Gertrude?

GERTRUDE: The reason I didn't raise my hand is because I don't wear silk hose. [*Laughter.*]

AUDREY: I wear cotton hose.

TEACHER: And yours don't run. Now, let's see the girls who have silk hose and have quite a few runs. According to what Frances read, when Lux is used, silk stockings will not run. How many use Lux?

[*Several hands were raised.*]

TEACHER: How do you find it?

BETTE: I have just as many runs.

JOYCE: I do, too.

MARY JANE: I do, too.

TEACHER: Maybe at this time you are wondering if you can really believe anything you read. I think you will agree with me, however, that in certain cases Fleischmann's yeast may be quite helpful, or doctors wouldn't recommend it as they sometimes do. Some of you feel that certain kinds of toothpaste help, at least in keeping your teeth clean; also, that if you use a flaked or granulated soap, your hose may wear longer than if you use just ordinary cake soap.

Now since certain things that you read in advertising appear to be true and certain things seem false, should one cease to pay attention to advertising altogether?

FRANCES: No.

CYNTHIA: I think it is best to try the things that are advertised and see if they work — try one and then try another.

TEACHER: Your idea is that you would learn about new products by reading the ad and then trying them out?

CYNTHIA: Yes, I think you would.

TEACHER: Here is an example of Cynthia's idea. This ad [*indicating*] describes a vegetable that is new to me. Some of you may have heard about it. It looks very much like a coconut on the outside. You boil it for twenty minutes, cut it open, and find a vegetable food resembling noodles. It says here that it may be grown in any section of the country with good soil. I was interested in this and probably wouldn't have known about it if I hadn't seen the ad.

Now, let's go back to the question we have been talking about. What shall we do as a group? Shall we ignore advertising, or shall we go ahead and believe everything that we read? Do you have any suggestions?

LORRAINE: I think that each person should find out for herself through experience.

CYNTHIA: I think there ought to be advertisements, and if people do want to read them, they can. If they don't want to read them, they don't have to.

FRANCES: Many times when people advertise things in magazines they put in free coupons, and if you send in a coupon you can get a free sample, and you don't have to buy something to find out whether it is good or not.

TEACHER: You are all getting back to the idea of experience in advertising, aren't you? How many think that instead of forgetting about advertising entirely, or of believing everything that you read, the best thing would be to do what Cynthia suggested first, namely, that you try to learn more about advertising?

[*Unanimous assent.*] [4]

TEACHER: How many places every day do you see or hear advertising?

[*Many hands raised.*]

TEACHER: Viona?

VIONA: Over the radio and in the papers.

CYNTHIA: If you take the street car to school, there are advertisements in there.

JOYCE: In magazines, everywhere.

GERTRUDE: In ordinary everyday talk.

FLORENE: I was wondering what good it does to advertise. But then one day I went into a store and they gave me the names of two products. I naturally picked the one I had heard most about, and

[4] Class has agreed on desired objective.

then I came to the conclusion it pays to advertise. If we are faced with such a decision when we go to a store, we should know more about advertising so we can make a good choice.

TEACHER: Do you agree with Florene on that?

GIRLS: Yes.

TEACHER: We have two secretaries today who are going to check and take down notes on some of your ideas for class activities. Do you have any suggestions as to what you might do to learn more about any of the prevailing advertisements?

LORRAINE: If you have any trouble with your skin, I think you ought to go to a doctor. It might get worse and not clear up. Of course, with most of us they are just adolescent pimples.

TEACHER: You would want to know then in studying advertising when to believe the advertisement and when to go to a doctor to get more information. In other words, you would want to analyze the ad.

BERNICE: I would like to know more about seals, like Good Housekeeping seals, for example — which to believe and which not to.

TEACHER: Yes, that's a good suggestion for a second activity. Who has another suggestion?

BETTE: When you buy something, see if there is a seal on it.

TEACHER: That is a good suggestion, too.

FRANCES: There is a Gold Medal Seal.

TEACHER: Where have you seen that?

FRANCES: On flour, wheaties, and some cereals.

TEACHER: Is that the same type of seal as the Good Housekeeping one?

FRANCES: I think it is supposed to guarantee that it is a good product.

TEACHER: Shall we try to find out? [*Affirmative nods.*]

FLORENE: I read somewhere that it would cut down on advertising that wasn't true if all these creams and things were under the government, and you couldn't put a seal on them if the government hadn't said they were all right.

TEACHER: Florene is raising a very good question, isn't she? Is our government going to step in and help us evaluate advertising? Florene says that she doesn't think so. Is that the idea, Florene?

FLORENE: Not as it stands now, I don't think they would.

TEACHER: Are you sure about that, Florene? Perhaps you should find out.

FLORENE: I have read ads and I know the way they were worded that they just couldn't have been true.

TEACHER: Does anybody else know about the government's responsibility for advertising? Probably you should find out whether the government is helping or has plans to help the consumer.

[*Class assents, and secretaries note suggestion.*]

TEACHER: Who has another suggestion as to what you might do?

FRANCES: You wonder how much you can believe and how much you can't believe.

TEACHER: Yes, and how would you go about to determine that?

FRANCES: Well, you can listen to what other people say about the product, or you can just imagine sometimes that not everything they say in an ad could be true. I mean, sometimes they make these foods so perfect you would almost be afraid to eat them. [*Laughter.*]

FLORENE: I wouldn't say that because if you ask the dentist about toothpaste he will get out of it by saying that some are good and some aren't. He wouldn't give a direct answer.

TEACHER: The method may work with some people and not with others. The dentist is a person who should know about toothpaste.

CYNTHIA: Your mother is older than you and might know more about some products.

TEACHER: Yes, to some extent you can use other people's experience. Have you another suggestion as to evaluating the truthfulness of an ad?

FRANCES: Study the products.

JOYCE: Study the ad like we said a while ago.

TEACHER: May I suggest a method that combines several of your ideas? Suppose each of you brought in several ads. You might get them from newspapers or magazines, or you might listen over the radio and jot down what you hear on one of the programs. You might even copy down what you saw on a billboard, or, as somebody suggested, you might observe the street car ads.

BETTE [*interrupting*]: If you had used a product, too, and knew what it was like, then you could tell.

TEACHER: Was it your idea to bring a product in and an ad, and evaluate them together?

BETTE: Yes, I think we should.

TEACHER: For instance, if Frances brought the Gold Medal ad, she could bring some product of Gold Medal. Couldn't each of you

bring in the ads in which you were interested or ads plus products? [*Affirmative nods.*] You see in some cases, if you thought you had a product that you could test here at school and you wanted to bring it along with the ad, then you would have a chance to actually test it here where some of the others could assist and profit by what you found out.

Don't you think it might be a good idea for Frances to bring to class some of the coupons she mentioned a short time ago? [*General assent.*]

You have suggested that you might evaluate ads through your own or other people's experience, through your actual testing of the products here in the laboratory, and through analyzing certain statements for truth. Are there other suggestions? I am not sure that you have all you need yet.

DOROTHY [*one of the class secretaries*]: Seals of approval, whether they are good or not.

TEACHER: Yes, I should have mentioned that, Dorothy, because that was one of your first suggestions. What other ideas have you?

FRANCES: When we were studying dairy products, a group of us went through the milk factory and saw just what had been done to the milk. We found out quite a few different things. If there is a factory to go through, it might be a good idea.

TEACHER: I know General Mills takes groups through their mill. Frances was speaking about the Gold Medal Seal. Do you think it would be possible to arrange a trip to General Mills? [*Great enthusiasm shown.*]

Perhaps you have enough suggestions for activities. At least you can go ahead and work out some of them, and then if you still don't know as much about advertising as you would like, you can hunt other suggestions.

What would be a good starting place for those you suggested today? Let's try and think back for just a minute over the ones that have been mentioned. [*Time allowed for thinking.*] What would be the logical starting place?

CYNTHIA: I think we ought to start where we learn by experience and see what other people have learned by experience.

TEACHER: Maybe some of the rest of you can help Cynthia. She wants to use other people's experience. How would you suggest that you do that?

GERTRUDE: Frances' samples. [*Laughter.*]

TEACHER: Then you would suggest that you bring in the samples of products and the ads.

FLORENE: Each girl could have a list of things she likes and some she doesn't like, and that might help. Nearly everybody in the class has to wash her hair with a certain rinse or shampoo — bring our own experience to class.

TEACHER: Yes, and if you are going to do this, what would you have to do in the meantime, that is between now and class time tomorrow?

BETTE: Look for ads.

TEACHER: Let's use Frances' and Gertrude's idea, too, of bringing in samples. What are some suggestions for practical samples? Everybody should understand just what to bring.

FLORENE: If we had time we could get a pair of stockings and wash one with a bar of cake soap and the other one with soap suds that we see advertised. We could commence working on it anyway.

TEACHER: Yes.

CYNTHIA: We could bring cosmetics.

TEACHER: You could easily find ads to go along with cosmetics. Now, another suggestion.

EMILY: How about samples of foods?

FRANCES: You very seldom see samples of foods. You might find them in Postum or something like that, but usually cosmetics are the only things that come in sample packages.

TEACHER: Yes, Emily, you can bring samples of food and labels. Frances can bring samples of cosmetics and ads for these and other cosmetics. Is there anything else you would like to suggest?

MARY JANE: Cough drops.

TEACHER: Yes, you can probably evaluate cough drops to some extent just as you can evaluate many other products if you have the product itself and the ad for that product. There is something else you haven't suggested here that you will need tomorrow.

PHYLLIS: Bring our ideas.

TEACHER: You remember you said you wanted to get ideas from doctors or dentists about toothpaste or from your mother about other products you plan to evaluate. Do you think if you have these three things — ads, products, and ideas based on experience — that you can commence evaluating tomorrow?

MARY ANNE: We may need books, too.

TEACHER: Yes, I think you will. We will have some books here. You may bring others if you like. That is all for today.

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